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ABSTRACT

This book is part of a series of case studies that demonstrate better ways to educate Ohio's students. The case study is part of the Transforming Learning Communities (TLC) Project, designed to support significant school-reform efforts among Ohio's elementary, middle, and high schools. The text describes the 12 Ohio schools that were selected for the Project from a sample of over 500 schools. The report outlines the process in transforming learning communities, focusing on the tradition of change, on strategic actions, and on enduring tensions. It describes how the 12 TLC schools were chosen and provides information on school locations, numbers, resources, racial/ethnic composition of students and staff, school performance, and a comparison of TLC schools. The book discusses the reconstruction of the nature of the teachers' work and how classroom-centered strategic actions, the redefining of students' work, the reorientation of teaching practices, and the development of cross-disciplinary learning experiences changed the schools. It describes the transformation of teachers' work lives, the extension of collegial development, the expansion of shared responsibility and the structuring of joint responsibility and decentralized control. The book closes with the schools' strategies for working with parents and other stakeholders, and offers advice on how the schools developed the habit of change. (RJM)

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OHIO
TRANSFORMING LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Getting into the Habit of Change in Ohio Schools

The Cross-Case Study of 12 Transforming Learning Communities

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TRANSFORMING LEARNING COMMUNITIES

GETTING INTO THE HABIT OF CHANGE IN OHIO SCHOOLS: THE CROSS-CASE STUDY OF 12 TRANSFORMING LEARNING COMMUNITIES

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April 1999

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Ohio Department of Education
Columbus, Ohio
1999

Getting into the Habit of Change in Ohio Schools

Dear Readers:

The 12 Transforming Learning Communities case studies enlighten readers about the search for better ways to educate Ohio's young people. The stories, told by educators themselves, paint a realistic picture of schools in Ohio.

The unique and inspirational perspectives of the school people highlight the triumphs of team spirit, the drive to turn obstacles into opportunities, and the effort to consider complex questions and find answers that lead to higher student achievement. These researchers tell stories of success and frustration in the endeavor to make life better for future generations.

At the core of educational change is a long-term commitment to teaching and learning that has the potential for creating positive change throughout society. The case studies emphasize intense, high-quality professional development; increased service to others; a holistic approach to education; the promotion of a sense of community; and a deepened understanding of the daily work in the classrooms, corridors, and boardrooms of public schools.

The educators at the heart of change encourage us to examine and refresh our views about schools. Sincere thanks is extended to the educators, researchers, students, and concerned citizens for their willingness to examine the lessons from the past, the realities of the present, and the likely consequences of change.

Sincerely,

Linda C. Nusbaum

Linda C. Nusbaum
Research Project Manager

Transforming Learning Communities Project

INTRODUCTION

The Transforming Learning Communities (TLC) Project was an initiative funded by the Ohio Department of Education (ODE) to support significant school reform efforts among Ohio's elementary, middle, and high schools. Education researchers associated with the International Centre for Educational Change at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto were contracted to undertake in-depth case studies of school improvement in a select number of schools supported by Ohio's Venture Capital grants. The aim was to understand the school improvement efforts in these schools, and to engage other Ohio educators in the lessons learned from these schools' experiences.

The project title communicates the orientation to the study. "Learning communities" is a metaphor for schools as learning places for everyone (especially students and teachers) who has a stake in the success of schools as educational environments. "Transforming" signifies that the schools are in a process of change, and that the changes they are striving to achieve involve fundamental reforms in teaching and learning, assessment, organization, professional development, and/or governance. Transforming also captures the intent of the project to support — not just to document — the process of change in participating schools.

The TLC Project began in the Spring of 1997. A three-stage process was used to identify and select schools that had demonstrated notable progress in their efforts to implement significant change over the preceding three to five years: (1) solicitation of nominations from ODE staff familiar with the Venture Capital schools, corroborating opinions from independent sources (e.g., Regional Professional Development Center staff), and statistical profiles for nominated schools (e.g., performance and demographic data); (2) telephone interviews with the principal of each nominated school; and (3) ranking of schools according to relevant sampling criteria. Twelve schools were chosen for variation in type (elementary, middle, secondary); location (rural, urban, and suburban from various regions in Ohio); focus for change (e.g., teaching and learning, professional growth, school-community partnerships); school improvement model; and evidence of progress.

The individual case studies were carried out during the 1997/98 school year by teams consisting of at least two members of the school staff and researchers from four Ohio universities and one college that partnered with the schools. Each team designed and implemented a multi-method study of school improvement activities and outcomes in their school learning community. These included interviews, observations, surveys, and documents. While each case study reflected the unique character of school change at each school, the studies employed a common conceptual framework to guide their exploration and analysis of change in these school learning communities. The TLC framework oriented the case study teams to investigate change and change processes in multiple contexts — the classroom, the corridors, and the community — and in relation to three key processes of learning in organizations: collaboration, inquiry, and integration.

The major products of the Transforming Learning Communities Project include 12 individual case study monographs, this cross-case report, and a companion video at www.ode.ohio.gov.

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Transforming Learning Communities Project

PUBLICATIONS

A Patchwork Quilt of Change: The Case Study of Brentmoor Elementary School

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A Paradoxical Path to Reform: The Case Study of Lomond Elementary School

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Mapping School Change in an Accelerated School:
The Case Study of Miami East North Elementary School

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As Diverse as the People We Serve:
The Case Study of Reynoldsburg High School

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While space prevents us from recognizing the many individuals whose contributions were invaluable to this project, we nonetheless want to mention a few. Our work stayed on course and at a level befitting the quality expected in large part due to the sensibilities and savvy of Linda Nusbaum in the Ohio Department of Education. We thank our colleagues at the University of Toronto — Barrie Bennett, Lynn Hannay, Andy Hargreaves, Paul Shaw, and Gordon Wells — and Karen Seashore Louis at the University of Minnesota for their timely and thought-provoking presentations at project meetings. Finally, we applaud the other two members of our team, Anastasia Meletopoulos (project assistant) and Shawn Moore (research officer). Their attention to detail, their intellectual and social skills, and their sense of commitment were crucial to the success of the project.

Dennis Thiessen Stephen Anderson

TLC Project Co-Directors
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the
University of Toronto

Chapter One

School: Creating Transforming Learning Communities

"... A learning place for everyone"

To some degree, at certain points in time, in certain situations or events, most schools can claim that this motto captures what they are.

"... In a continuous cycle of renewal"

Again, some schools stand out and apart from many others in the depth of their commitment to learning and in the scope of their reforms. We call such schools ***Transforming Learning Communities***.

This book is about 12 Ohio schools that, in our view, are Transforming Learning Communities (for a description of the schools, see Chapter Two). They are not the only Transforming Learning Communities among the schools of Ohio, but their stories — and what we learned from comparing their perspectives and practices — are the basis for the accounts presented in the following chapters. We have tried to provide actions for engaging with the text, sometimes as points to ponder, sometimes as different ways to understand familiar ideas, and sometimes as actions to consider. In this chapter we explain more fully these options and their possibilities in order to amplify our understanding of Transforming Learning Communities. In so doing, we also introduce the key ideas that have both framed the TLC case studies and shaped what we here propose are the lessons that come from studying the 12 TLC schools.

School Reform: "It's All a Matter of ..."

In the ongoing search for how best to change schools, educators have embraced various positions on the best methods for effecting change. Some of the more prominent positions have pointed to a par-

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ticular force, which, if unleashed, would significantly change the fortunes and success of schools. The emphases in these solutions to the problem of change are represented by claims that it's all a matter of:

- Designing the *best* program
- Following the *correct* process
- Providing the most *rigorous* preparation and training
- Implementing the most *effective* management practices
- Developing the most *enabling* structures
- Enforcing *demanding* accountability standards and practices

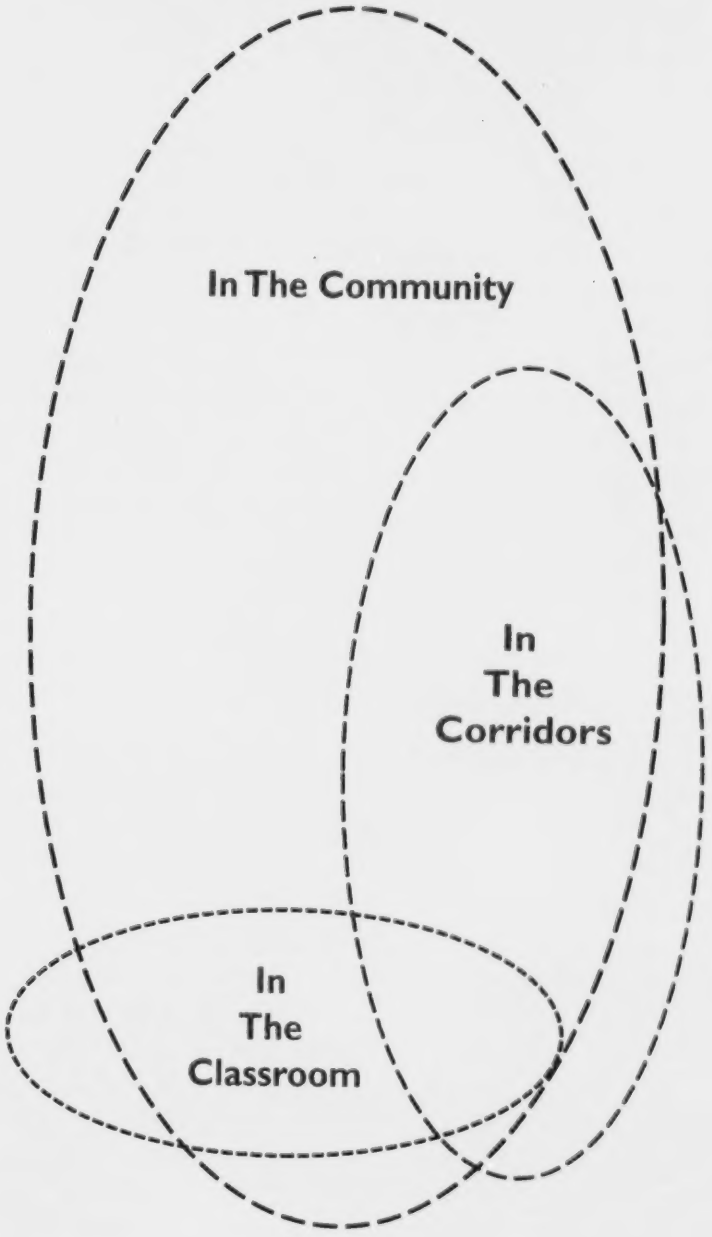
For at least 40 years, educators have rallied around one or more of the above solutions in progressively more complicated and creative responses to calls for school reform. We respect these responses and later discuss strategies which cross-cut most of these answers to bringing about change. Yet, in our view, dwelling on any and all of these solutions still leaves a more fundamental question unstated and unanswered: What do we want our schools to become? Our answer is that we want our schools to become Transforming Learning Communities. School reform, then, is all a matter of creating Transforming Learning Communities, and the above methods are tools in the service of this endeavor.

But what is a TLC school like? As a beginning to what will be a book-length response to this question, we describe the key features of learning communities and the dynamic character of transforming learning communities.

Learning Communities

Learning communities encompass at least three contexts in which teachers work with students, colleagues, administrators, parents, and other stakeholders to support their development. Figure 1 portrays the three contexts in which this development occurs. "In the classroom" is where students learn on their own, with other students, and through their interactions with teachers. It includes student learning inside the school (e.g., formal classrooms, halls, library, playground) and outside the school (e.g., neighborhood, parks and woodlands, museums). "In the corridors" is where teachers work with other adults, primarily inside the school, to organize, facilitate the operation of, and make decisions about the school and its development. This can involve a wide range of relationships and forums: teachers with other teachers (e.g., committees, departments, action research teams); teachers with parents (e.g., parent–teacher groups); teachers with resource personnel (e.g., in study groups or work teams with special education teachers, English as a Second Language teachers, consultants, psychologists, social workers); and teachers with administrators and other stakeholders (e.g., steering committees, school councils). "In the Community" is where teachers, students, administrators and other school personnel inter-

Figure 1: CONTEXTS FOR CHANGE



act with groups and organizations outside the school to improve and extend the capacity of the school. These linkages can be with local associations (e.g., business, social agencies), other professional groups (e.g., networks of schools, universities), and government (e.g., district, state).

While development can occur in one context independent of the two other contexts, learning communities are mindful that what happens in one situation inevitably influences what happens in other venues. The nested representation in Figure 1 conveys this embedded relationship among the three contexts. In order to take advantage of the possibilities afforded by a more embedded environment, the learning taking place in these contexts needs to be in a form which taken advantage of these connections.

Within all three contexts, learning is approached such that connections are fostered among people (Collaboration), across structures or activities (Integration), and between ideas or practices (Inquiry). Table 1 displays the activities and examples of the three most common forms of learning: collaboration, integration, and inquiry. *Collaboration* includes situations in which two or more people share their expertise, understanding or control. *Integration* combines previously discrete structures, strategies or program components. *Inquiry* involves concerted and cooperative efforts to make sense of or evaluate experiences. The inclusion of students, teachers and parents in the examples listed in Table 1 reminds us that everyone who has a stake in the success of the school can participate in activities where they contribute to their own development, to the development of those with whom they work, and to the development of the school. In so doing, their collaborative, integrated, and inquiry-oriented work becomes the force that binds what happens in one context with one or both of the other contexts. It is in this interconnectedness where learning communities flourish.

Defining Transforming Learning Communities

Adding the notion of "transforming" to the above description of learning communities further identifies these schools as change-oriented environments. We use "transforming" to highlight two particular dimensions of how change pervades schools. As an adjective, "transforming" recognizes that schools are always in a state of becoming. Their stories of development ebb and flow over time and through planned, naturally occurring, and unanticipated occurrences. As a verb, "transforming" alerts us to the fact that from time to time schools deliberately try to alter how they work. They adopt strategic actions designed to influence and, where possible, guide the process of change. Transforming learning communities are about not only connecting, but also improving the learning in the classroom, corridors, and community.

TABLE 1: FORMS OF LEARNING

FORM	ACTIVITIES	EXAMPLES ACROSS CONTEXTS
Collaboration	• sharing expertise through assistance, exchanging of resources, or swapping of stories • building mutual understanding through negotiating meaning, planning cooperatively, or deliberating alternatives • redefining control through joint decision making, redistributing and decentralizing responsibilities, or participatory management strategies	• students work in cooperative learning groups, help establish routines, norms or procedures, or make decisions about the content, structure and assessment criteria for assignments • teachers work with mentors, coaches or lead teachers • parents work as volunteers in classrooms, propose changes in school policies, or represent the school in the community
Integration	• linking strategies by interrelating inquiry and development, applying multiple teaching/learning models, or developing common management practices • restructuring through the use of time and space more flexibly, creating more interdependent roles and responsibilities, or connecting existing units (or inventing new ones) • coordinating courses/programs by supporting interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary or non-disciplinary delivery	• students experience thematic instruction or incorporate skills and knowledge from more than one discipline in community-based projects • teachers develop integrated units in a school-within-a-school team or respond to learning problems by having special education personnel work in their own classrooms • parents participate in student-led assessment conferences or suggest ways to support professional development, school improvement, and community renewal simultaneously
Inquiry	• making sense of the world through record keeping, conversations with peers or colleagues, or analyzing artifacts in the environment • evaluating practice by reviewing what works, exploring the assumptions behind actions, or examining the implications of choices • evaluating alternative approaches by comparing perspectives, observing different applications, or experimenting with new techniques	• students investigate the impact of innovative classroom strategies, develop a portfolio of their writing, or engage in problem-solving exercises • teachers participate in action research projects, organize a school-based program review, or create discipline-based study groups • parents conduct surveys or focus group interviews in the community, critique curriculum resources, or document the progress of particular students

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Tradition of Change

Traditions are the beliefs or customs passed from one generation to another in the conversations and accumulated experiences people share. Transforming learning communities have a tradition of change and capacity of those within (and those with a vested interest in but outside of) schools to sustain their development. Karen Seashore Louis and her colleagues capture this sense of a tradition of change in their following description of school development: "School development is a process that occurs as a result of the interacting influences of three sources of change — that which is deliberately planned; that which is naturally occurring in the life cycle of organizations; and that which is unforeseen or unknowable in advance" (Louis, Toole, & Hargreaves, 1999).[1]

In our view, naturally occurring changes are at the heart of how learning communities transform. Circumstances and conditions are forever changing: (1) composition — people come and go (e.g., staff retire and are replaced, new students arrive and old students leave throughout the school year); (2) resources — allocations vary from year to year (e.g., affecting supplies, support and assignments); (3) technology — normal functions alter (e.g., equipment becomes obsolete, more advanced technology becomes available); and (4) physical plant — facilities are updated or added (e.g., resulting in an increase in the population or a change in communication, internal traffic or congregation patterns). In the normal flow of doing school, changes happen spontaneously and informally as people adapt to events as they occur. Changes also happen more deliberately and formally over an extended period of time.

During any given period, the changes are many though not always of comparable prominence. Despite the fact that some changes are more publicly touted and widely promoted, they are often differentially embraced and at different stages of development across the school. Furthermore, beyond the more acclaimed reform agenda, there usually are several other innovations in progress temporarily disconnected from and sometimes in apparent opposition to those with greater notoriety. This rather chaotic image is part of the the nature of change. Things rarely unfold in any planned or sequential manner, despite efforts to manage the process. Occasionally, it seems circular in that new practices are revisited, modified or extended, or added with an increasingly larger and more inclusive group. Frequently, the story involves starts and stops, obstacles, confrontations, and crises. At some points, the changes seem more intense, frenetic, visible, and complex; at other moments, the changes are less evident, seemingly inert, and even undetectable. Some changes have a limited shelf life, while others become part of the metamorphic character of the naturally occurring changes in transforming learning communities.

The biographical dimension of transforming, then, is a story in which change unfolds more rapidly in certain periods and amid a whirl of incidental, accidental and judicious actions. The process is gradual,

[1] Louis, K. S., Toole, J. & Hargreaves, A. (1999). Rethinking school improvement. In J. Murphy & K. S. Louis (Eds.) *Handbook of Research on Educational Administration, 2nd edition.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Chapter 12.

sometimes imperceptible, and often unremarkable in the path it follows. Yet it is in this habit of tinkering where the norms of wondering about new possibilities, puzzling through alternative ideas, and experimenting with innovative practices take root and grow. These are the catalytic forces of transforming and part of the natural process of transforming learning communities.

Much of what is deliberately planned to bring about change, or initiated to cope with unforeseen events (see Louis, Toole and Hargreaves quotation above), emanates from within the naturally occurring changes. These deliberate interventions — what we call "strategic actions" — both describe one of the salient traditions of transforming (adjective) learning communities and point to how transforming (verb) learning communities intentionally work to enrich their tradition of change.

Strategic Actions

Strategic actions are frameworks which define how to use particular approaches to initiate, promote and sustain changes within and across the three contexts of learning communities. Each strategic action has its own orientation to bringing about change, one that provides for a range of approaches which focus on ways to influence the development of how teachers interact with students, colleagues, administrators, parents, and other stakeholders inside and outside the school. Chapters Three and Four examine nine strategic actions we identified in use at two or more of the 12 TLC schools (see Table 2). Here two further points about strategic actions deserve mention: (1) Teachers are the primary strategists; and (2) Connecting the development of their relationships in the classroom, in the corridors, and with other communities is the primary strategic goal.

TABLE 2: STRATEGIC ACTIONS

<table>
<tr><th>IN AND ON BEHALF OF CLASSROOMS</th><th>IN THE CORRIDORS AND AS PART OF OTHER COMMUNITIES</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Redefining the work of students
Reorienting the practice of teaching</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Creating conditions that enable and stimulate innovation
• Developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences
• Working and learning outside the school</td><td>• Building capacity for joint work
• Negotiating and sustaining external linkages</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Extending collegial development
Expanding shared responsibility</td></tr>
</table>

The titles of Chapters Three to Five have similar stems: *Reconstructing the Nature of Teachers' Work* and *Reconstructing the Work of Schools*. They differ only in the contextual priorities (*In and On Behalf of the Classroom* in Chapter Three, *In the Corridors* in Chapter Four, *As Part of Other Communities* in Chapter Five) within which the strategic action operates. At this point in the history at the TLC schools, the collective message of the strategic actions is clear: transforming these learning communities is about changing what teachers do. Teachers are part of every strategic relationship and are the linchpins that bind the changing conditions and practices within and across contexts. The work of teachers is relational, with students in the classroom, and with colleagues and others in the corridors and as part of other communities. Notwithstanding the significant work of many others, the strategic actions are predominantly for and by the teachers.

In contrast to the emphasis on teachers, we say comparatively less about the strategic role of principals. They can figure prominently in reorganizing structures and reallocating resources, in solving problems and addressing tensions, or in promoting and protecting changes. It is crucial for them to take part in the joint work, to participate as a colleague in professional learning, and to share decisions they may have previously made on their own — shifts that, for some, amount to reconstructing the work of principals. In the TLC schools, these shifts in the lives of principals are less dramatic than the changes in the work of teachers. Teachers are the only ones who can make direct and daily links between changes in the corridors and as part of other communities and changes in the classroom.

In Table 2, the top two strategic actions (*redefining the work of students* and *reorienting the practice of teaching*) are centered on students and the development of student–teacher interactions, the bottom two strategic actions (*extending collegial development* and *expanding shared responsibility*) are centered on teachers and the development of their interactions with colleagues and other stakeholders, and the middle five strategic actions (*creating conditions that enable and stimulate innovation, developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences, building capacity for joint work, working and learning outside the school, and negotiating* and *sustaining external linkages*) are combined in two sets and centered on the development of both student–teacher and teacher–other interactions. In transforming learning communities, it is essential for the simultaneous and reciprocal development of both relationships, for to concentrate on only one of the learners (students or teachers) will eventually diminish the possibilities for both.

Enduring Tensions

Problems are neither absent from nor unique to transforming learning communities. Some can be readily addressed; others pose challenges that require careful and systematic management for some time before resolutions can be found; and a few trigger tensions which persist without conclusion. The tensions that most emerge, however, are manifestations of the kind of learning communities schools strive to be and are inherent in the strategic actions transforming learning communities foster. They are enduring in that as the tradition of change evolves, the tensions tend to reappear sometimes in different guises, but always in need of deliberation, debate, and response.

Predictable disagreements occur over the degree to which the school should change, the pace at which these changes should occur, and the extent to which educational change should become social change. The enduring tensions most prevalent in transforming learning communities raise fundamental and interrelated concerns about autonomy, authority and accountability. They surface from three different locations, yet still embody similar concerns. We summarize them as follows:

One-Room-Schoolhouse Tension — about the right of teachers to pursue changes on their own terms, according to their schedule, and at their discretion.

Bonding Tension — about the extent to which an increase in collegial interaction and joint action enables teachers to improve what they do better than when left to their own devices.

Bottom-Line Tension — about whether or not teachers, individually or collectively, should have the primary responsibility for determining what matters most in student, teacher, and school performance.

These tensions concentrate on the extent to which collegial or outside sources (parents, management, community representatives, policy makers, Proficiency Tests) should influence and determine the standard for changes teachers make. A sense of professional integrity runs deep (the legacy of the one-room-schoolhouse), and any perceived infringement on teachers' ability to determine what they do can invoke this concern about limits on their voice and choice. Sorting out their moral accountability to students and parents, their professional accountability to their colleagues, their contractual accountability to their school district and the Department of Education, and their social accountability to local constituents is fraught with conflict. Transforming learning communities are mindful of these enduring dilemmas and struggle with them to better define the sociopolitical world they seek.

Conclusions

Probing the strategic actions that especially teachers use to develop their relationships with students in classrooms and with colleagues and others in the school and beyond has helped us to understand the transforming qualities of the learning communities in 12 Ohio schools. After we introduce the schools and describe how we came to know their change-oriented practices (Chapter Two), we dwell on those strategic actions which best reveal how the reconstruction of teachers' work in various contexts continuously enhance their collaborative, inquiry-oriented, and integrative environments (Chapters Three to Five). In the final chapter (Chapter Six), we return to where we began: we revisit what transforming learning communities are and imagine what they can still become.

Chapter Two

TLC Schools, Their Profile and Their Study

Brentmoor Elementary School
Cranwood Learning Academy
Dawson-Bryant Elementary School
Lomond Elementary School
Miami East North Elementary School

East Muskingum Middle School
Galion Middle School
Talawanda Middle School

Federal Hocking High School
Franklin Heights High School
Reynoldsburg High School
Taft High School

Why study these 12 schools? What distinguishes these schools individually or in various combinations? How does the research capture and represent both the unique and the common change themes in these schools? Here, we briefly describe how we came to select the 12 TLC schools, how the schools compare on basic indicators (e.g., location, student and staff numbers, and performance) and in terms of their change initiatives, and how we developed the themes described in subsequent chapters. For a more comprehensive and in-depth portrayal of the distinct worlds of each school, we refer you to the case reports themselves.

Selecting the 12 TLC Schools

In the early spring of 1997, we identified 12 schools from a sample of over 500 schools involved in the Venture Capital program, a bold initiative to support systemic change in Ohio schools. The Venture Capital program is intended to "spark school renewal efforts and to encourage risk-takers who want to

create a more effective educational system," to support those who can make "significant progress in institutionalizing their commitment to professional development and transforming the culture in which school renewal is to be implemented," and to encourage strides beyond conventional schooling through "fresh approaches and active explorations of fundamental change in teaching and learning, assessment, governance, organization, and professional development" (Ohio Department of Education, 1995, p.1).[2] Through a competitve grants process, schools participating in the Venture Capital initiative are awarded $25,000 per year over a five-year period to support schoolwide improvement efforts. As part of their proposals, participating schools select from a range of existing schoolwide reform models, or create their own. For many of these schools selected for this project, the Venture Capital grant was one of a series of overlapping external grants contributing to long-term school reform and renewal.

We wanted to engage in an in-depth, critical examination of schools that have made significant progress in this venture. The selection process had three stages: a two-step (nomination and corroboration) strategy for identifying schools; interviews with the principals of the identified schools; and final selection based on the variety of the schools' change initiatives and on a balance in their location, composition and circumstance.

In stage one, we sought nominations from Ohio Department of Education personnel familiar with the Venture Capital program and the progress of schools within that program. We sought corroboration for the nominated schools from at least one other source with local knowledge of these schools (e.g., Regional Professional Development staff, school district personnel, and professors in nearby universities). In addition, we assembled other relevant information about each school, including demographic data, state performance results, Venture Capital plans, and reports from the Venture Capital Assessment surveys. At this point, we had 30 schools under consideration.

In stage two, we conducted 45-to-60-minute telephone interviews with the principal of each nominated school, with a focus on the core areas that would later guide the design of the case studies. We asked them to describe the characteristics of their learning communities, how these characteristics have changed over time, the enabling and inhibiting factors influencing their development, the strategies used to stimulate change, and the depth and impact of these changes on students, teachers and the school.

In stage three, we organized the information from the first two stages so that we could compare schools by level (elementary, middle and high schools), locale (urban, suburban, rural/small town), region (according to the 12 Regional Professional Development Center areas), school improvement approach, and focus and status of the change effort. We concentrated on schools that had made substantial progress on implementing fundamental changes in classroom and school practices. From this group, we then selected the 12 TLC schools based on maximizing the variation in school improvement models and strategies, while at the same time achieving some balance in relation to level, locale and region. The next section reviews the variability and balance of the 12 TLC schools in greater detail.

[2]Ohio Department of Education (1995). *Venture Capital in Ohio Schools: Building Commitment and Capacity for School Renewal.* Columbus, OH: Ohio Department of Education.

School Profiles

In the following outline, we provide a glimpse into who the TLC schools are (locations, students and staff, performance) and how they have been changing their practices in recent years. This summary serves as a sketch of what we had to study (see next section) and foreshadows some of the change factors and forces we examine in subsequent chapters.

Location

As the accompanying map (Figure 2) indicates, the TLC schools are located throughout Ohio, with only the northwestern and eastern parts of the state not represented. The schools are evenly distributed among more densely populated urban or suburban communities and school districts (Brentmoor, Cranwood, Lomond, Franklin Heights, Reynoldsburg, Taft) and more sparsely populated rural or small town communities (Dawson-Bryant, Miami East North, East Muskingum, Galion, Talawanda, and Federal Hocking).

Students and Staff: Numbers, Resources and Racial/Ethnic Composition

Table 3 displays the grade levels and numbers of students and certificated and classified staff (FTE values) in each school in 1996-97. Not only do students and staff work and learn in environments which vary in density and familiarity, they do so with quite different ratios of students to certificated staff (with Lomond, Franklin Heights and Taft below 15:1 and Miami East North, East Muskingum and Reynoldsburg closer to 20:1) and in certificated to classified staff (with Miami East North, East Muskingum and Franklin Heights less than 3:1 and Galion and Reynoldsburg over 4:1). The different ratios suggest different levels of available support for students and staff.

In addition to this human resource variance, the schools also differed in their per-pupil spending. Four schools were above the State average (Brentmoor, Lomond, Franklin Heights, and Taft). Two were more than 20% above the State average (Franklin Heights, and Lomond), and three were more than 10% below the State average (Dawson-Bryant, East Muskingum, and Federal Hocking).

With the exception of three schools with significant numbers of African-American students (Cranwood 95%, Lomond 53% and Taft 81%) and two schools with 9-10% African-American students (Franklin Heights and Reynoldsburg), the seven other schools had predominantly white students (96-99%). Four schools had more than 1.0% students who were Hispanic, Asian Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaskan Native or multiracial (with the highest percentage at Lomond, 5%). Among the staff, three schools had more than 20% certificated and classified staff who were not white (Lomond 24%, Taft 42%, and Cranwood 53%). Four schools had only white staff (Brentmoor, Dawson-Bryant, East Muskingum, and Galion), at the remaining five schools, 4-6% of their staffs were non-white.

FIGURE 2: MAP OF TLC SCHOOL LOCATIONS

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

1 **Brentmoor Elementary School**
Mentor Exempted Village Schools
Cleveland State University

2 **Cranwood Learning Academy**
Cleveland City Schools
Cleveland State University

3 **Dawson-Bryant Elementary School**
Dawson-Bryant Local Schools
(Lawrence County)
Ohio University

4 **Lomond Elementary School**
Shaker Heights City Schools
Cleveland State University

5 **Miami East North Elementary School**
Miami East Local Schools
(Miami County)
Miami University

MIDDLE SCHOOLS

6 **East Muskingum Middle School**
East Muskingum Local Schools
(Muskingum County)
Muskingum College
Ohio University

7 **Galion Middle School**
Galion City Schools
The Ohio State University

8 **Talawanda Middle School**
Talawanda City Schools
Miami University

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

9 **Federal Hocking High School**
Federal Hocking Local Schools
(Athens County)
Ohio University

10 **Franklin Heights High School**
South-Western City Schools
The Ohio State University

11 **Reynoldsburg High School**
Reynoldsburg City Schools
The Ohio State University

12 **Robert A. Taft High School**
Cincinnati City Schools
Miami University

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TABLE 3: TLC STATISTICAL PROFILE (FY 97)

SCHOOL	GRADE RANGE	# STUDENTS (APPROX)[2]	ADMIN STAFF (CERT)[3]	ADMIN STAFF (CLASS)[4]	TEACHERS, COUNSELORS, LIBRARIANS[5]	OTHER (CLASS)[6]
BRENTMOOR ELEM.	K-6	430	2.0	0.0	24.0	6.6
CRANWOOD ELEM.	K-5	500	1.0	0.0	28.5	10.7
DAWSON-BRYANT ELEM.	K-5	630	1.0	0.0	30.0	9.0
LOMOND ELEM.	K-4	550	2.0	0.0	37.2	8.5
MIAMI EAST NORTH ELEM.	K-4	225	1.0	0.0	10.0	5.1
EAST MUSKINGUM M.S.	5-8	800	2.0	0.0	37.0	16.5
GALION M.S.	6-8	460	2.0	0.0	28.3	6.0
TALAWANDA M.S.	6-8	860	2.0	0.0	56.0	18.4
FEDERAL HOCKING H. S.	9-12	470	1.0	0.0	26.2	8.0
FRANKLIN HEIGHTS H. S.	9-12	1100	4.5	0.0	76.0	30.2
REYNOLDSBURG H. S.	9-12	1700	4.0	0.0	88.2	21.6
TAFT H. S.	9-12	980	5.0	1.0	88.5	32.4

[1] Testing years 1995/96, 1996/97

[2] These figures are rounded. Population numbers vary slightly depending on the data source (EMIS website or TLC school profiles)

[3] Full time equivalency (FTE) values for certificated staff

[4] FTE for classified staff

[5] FTE for certificated staff

[6] FTE — Classified Other (custodians, bus drivers, cooks, secretaries, etc.)

Performance: Recognition and Proficiency Test Scores

Most of the TLC schools have a local, state, or, in some cases, national reputation for innovation and excellence. Many have received one or more grants or projects to support and extend their work (e.g., Talawanda — Partners in Learning, Venture Capital, SchoolNet, Raising the Bar). Some have been honored locally (e.g., Cranwood as one of the top seven schools in the district in 1996-97) or at the State level — e.g., 1995-1997 Ohio Building Excellent Schools for Today and the 21st Century (BEST) Practices awards: Dawson-Bryant (Success for All), Taft (Earn & Learn Program), Cranwood (The Learning Project), Franklin Heights (Integrated Tech/Prep Program), Reynoldsburg (Thesis Program), Federal Hocking (Internship Program). These schools are known, and are sought out by other schools: (for example, many of the schools have developed a system for hosting delegations from schools inside and outside Ohio who regularly arrive to observe what they do). These schools also are active in making their initiatives more widely known through such activities as conference presentations, and workshops.

From 1996 to 1998, the percentage of students who passed three or more of the five proficiency tests (citizenship, mathematics, reading, writing, science) increased in nine of the 12 TLC schools; four schools registered an improvement on all five tests (Dawson-Bryant, Brentmoor, East Muskingum, and Taft — ninth-grade tests only). In the three other schools, Lomond had an increase in two of the five tests, Miami East North maintained its above-the-state passing average on all five tests, and Franklin Heights showed little change in its below-the-state passing average record. Eight of the 12 schools are above the state average in the percentage of students passing all five tests.

Recent Changes: School-by-School Snapshots

Brentmoor: In 1994, with the support of the Venture Capital grant, Brentmoor became one of the few elementary schools in a nationwide Paideia network of predominantly middle and high schools coordinated through the National Paideia Center at the University of North Carolina. Guided by its slogan, "The best education for the best is the best education for all," and 12 principles which define the purposes of schooling, a set of teaching strategies that promote thinking and learning for a lifetime, and the conditions necessary to provide an enabling and exemplary learning environment for students and staff alike, Paideia has provided the framework within which Brentmoor has worked to redirect classroom and school practices. Some of the prominent changes have included: didactic instruction, coaching and Socratic seminars (see Box 4, Chapter Three); grade- and school-level thematic study with a particular emphasis on integration with the arts; and an infrastructure (e.g., steering committee) which promotes joint decisions by teachers, the principal, and, to some extent, parents about themes, schedules, professional development, and relationships with parents and the community.

Cranwood: Prior to its involvement in the Venture Capital program, Cranwood had proposed a multidimensional plan in response to the district's Vision 21 initiative, a strategy which asked schools to redefine their approach to student learning. Rather than choose one of the several models suggested, Cranwood developed its own customized Learning Project, a blend of multiple intelligences theory, Afrocentric curriculum, performance-based assessment, and community-service learning (see Box 9, Chapter Three). Later, the model was extended to multi-age classrooms and looping (see Box 6, Chapter Three). To facilitate these classroom-based changes, Cranwood created two new positions, a Lead Teacher and a Community Broker (see Box 20, Chapter Five). The school also established an umbrella committee to monitor development of the project, stimulate development (through professional-development events and programs), and, where required, modify development of the project.

Dawson-Bryant: Dawson-Bryant has been engaged in a multi-pronged reform, a significant part of which involves its participation (initially enabled through funding provided from the Venture Capital program) in the Success For All (SFA) program, developed under the direction of Robert Slavin at Johns Hopkins University. The SFA model emphasizes early intervention, continuous assessment, and cooperative group learning. It includes research-based classroom programs in reading, language arts, and math-

ematics (*Roots and Wings*), conflict resolution, and integrated social studies/science (*World Labs*), as well as a Family Support component to address the broader issues affecting student success. Dawson-Bryant has adopted and adapted the SFA reading, language arts and conflict-resolution programs, and it is an implementation pilot site for the integrated social/studies science program. Assisted by a Parent Liaison and a Family Support Team composed of Dawson-Bryant staff and representatives from 17 social and community service agencies, the school has developed a wide array of Family Support programs (e.g., home visits, parenting classes, family values programs, nutritional programs, latchkey childcare services, support for needy families). The school advocates and facilitates access to needed support services on behalf of students and their families (see Box 19, Chapter Five). It continues to explore how best to incorporate technology into its programs through SchoolNet and the Appalachian Distance Learning Project. Accompanying these classroom-related changes, teachers have an increasing role in deciding which paths best respond to the needs of their students and which training opportunities they require to support the implementation of the paths they choose.

Lomond: Following the release of two documents in 1989 — *Everybody Counts: A Report to the Nation on the Future of Mathematics Education* by the National Research Council, and *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics — Lomond embarked on a major reform effort in mathematics instruction and assessment based on the tenets of constructivism. In this epistemological change, teachers designed their own instructional strategies (e.g., problem-based learning, math dialogues) and performance tasks in order to engage with, understand and respond to student thinking. Coinciding with these classroom-based changes, teachers have participated in summer writing teams; documented and discussed self-directed inquiries into their own alternative teaching practices; formed grade, cross-grade, and later teacher-leader teams to examine ways to coordinate and extend their respective curriculum approaches; and worked with principals (e.g., demonstration lessons), secondary school mathematics teachers, and university mathematics educators to compare and elaborate how they enact constructivist practices in the classroom.

Miami East North: In 1994, Miami East North used the Venture Capital grant to support its adoption of the Accelerated Schools model designed by Henry Levin. The model is grounded in three principles — unity of purpose, empowerment with responsibility for all stakeholders, and building on strengths — and nine values (expertise, equity, community, risk taking, experimentation, reflection, participation, trust, communication). Strategically, the school has concentrated on inquiry as a basis for framing instruction, formulating solutions to problems, and proposing new directions for the school as a whole. Under the guidance of a steering committee and with the assistance of a teacher and the principal (who were trained Accelerated Schools' coaches), all members of the community — teachers, staff, students, parents, and local constituents with an investment in the success of the school — work together on cadres (see Box 10, Chapter Four; Box 18, Chapter Five) to examine and take action on areas of importance to the continuous improvement of the school (e.g., communication, curriculum and instruction, parent–teacher relationships). Through this process, Miami East North has introduced interdisci-

plinary or thematic units, more inquiry and activity-based classroom practices, cross-grade family lessons (see Box 5, Chapter Three), and student cadres (see Box 3, Chapter Three), participated in community projects, and institutionalized a more inclusive (especially for teachers) governance system.

East Muskingum: Whether couched in its longstanding (since early 1980s) dedication to a middle school philosophy or framed according to its more recent commitment to the Classroom of the Future model used in the successful bid for a Venture Capital grant (1994), East Muskingum has been a story of perpetual yet at times imperceptible change. The reform process has been pragmatic in its focus — responding to the immediate needs and policies of the moment — and ecological in its form, with changes emerging in particular parts of the school and sometimes taken up across the school as time, circumstances, or preferences permit. At East Muskingum, then, such classroom-centered changes as cooperative learning, authentic assessment, or interdisciplinary units, and such restructuring strategies as block scheduling, teaming (and the time for individual and team planning), or decentralized decision making mechanisms (e.g., in addition to grade-level teams, school and Venture Capital steering committees and focus groups in key areas such as reading) have waxed and waned as conditions and priorities alter. What persists and evolves is an environment disposed to continuously critiquing and improving what they do (see Box 12, Chapter Four).

Galion: Since the mid-1980s, Galion has developed and refined its particular brand of teaming in order to create a more personal, interactive and relevant learning experience for early adolescents. Over the years, adjustments have been made in the organization (presently three core teams — grade 7, grade 8, and grades 6-8 — and one team of teachers from the arts and exploratory subjects), physical location (core teams have their own space in the building — a suite of classrooms with partitioned walls and a common work area for teachers), and time (block scheduling, back-to-back individual and team planning periods, "flex" time for individual and tutorial assistance for students in need) so that teams can better coordinate how they work with students (including more thematic units on such topics as Galion history, a mock political convention, career awareness, the Holocaust). Teachers have assumed more responsibility for and leadership in decisions related to discipline, program, and their own professional development. At the school level, team leaders have joined with the principals on a 20/20 Committee to maintain links across team and with district and State policies and directions (see Box 15, Chapter Four).

Talawanda: The constants in the Talawanda change story include: the persistent (since the mid-1980s) and accelerating importance of technology (improving internal and external communication, enhancing the operation of the school, enriching curriculum and instruction, stimulating professional discourse and development); the structure within which teachers and students work (with most teachers maintaining some balance in their responsibilities to their team or tribe — two tribes at each grade level, each with six teachers and 125 students, to their grade level, and to their cross-grade subject priorities — see Box 13, Chapter Four); and the creative problem solving where teachers continuously research,

and experiment with variations in such areas as curriculum integration, inclusion (e.g., addressing the challenge of students at risk or with special needs), or decision-making structures. Within these traditions, and more characteristic of particular groups or periods of time, there have been a series of more specific changes (e.g., cooperative learning, portfolio assessment, Principal's Advisory Council, interdisciplinary units, teacher study groups, scheduling for planning time) which, though important at that moment or for a certain purpose, have served more to elaborate one or more of the constants in how Talawanda has developed as a community. During the year of the case study, the teachers were immersed in inquiry and discussions about the potential adoption of flexible block scheduling (see Box 16, Chapter Four).

Federal Hocking: In 1991, Federal Hocking was in a state of turmoil, associated with student behavior, lack of administrative leadership, teacher frustration and isolation, workload, and teacher and parent dissatisfaction with overall student performance. A small group of teachers took over responsibility for discipline and began experimenting with new scheduling and team teaching arrangements in grade nine. Beginning in 1992, under a new administration, the staff, students, and parents began working on a comprehensive restructuring and school improvement program geared to greater student success and a vision of a democratic school. They developed a mission statement and an inventory of strengths and weaknesses. First, they changed the schedule from an eight-period day to a four-period semester system to facilitate more individual attention. Teachers were allocated a full period for individual and team planning. In association with its Venture Capital grant, Federal Hocking adopted the 10 principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools (CES) and became a CES member. The CES principles fit the direction the school was headed, with an emphasis on personalizing instruction, reducing the teacher/student instructional workload, setting high expectations and a core academic curriculum for all students, recasting teachers as generalists, designing learning experiences and exhibitions of student learning, and developing democratic governance and learning processes. Notable classroom-centered innovations introduced over the years include integrated English and American History ("humanities block"), a community service internship program, project learning and evaluation by exhibition and assessment rubrics, and new teaching strategies such as cooperative learning and Socratic seminars (some teachers were trained in seminars at the National Paideia Center). A cooperative professional-development model was introduced in 1994 (see Box 11, Chapter Four), which has evolved to include collaborative inquiry teams, teacher study groups, peer coaching, and a Critical Friends group. Changes in governance were instituted to provide wider opportunities for teacher, student, and parent participation in school decision making.

Franklin Heights: What began in the late 1980s as a desire to improve the program experience and retention of at-risk freshmen (10% of the grade nine students) expanded in the early 1990s into the development of what eventually was known as the Tech Prep I program. Coordinated by a team of six teachers, the Tech Prep I program now involves approximately 100 to 125 grade nine students each year in an integrated program that emphasizes communication and social skills (e.g., through presentations,

exhibitions, groupwork), problem-solving strategies (through both discipline-based and interdisciplinary activities and assignments organized and evaluated according to assessment rubrics), and computer literacy (see Boxes 7 and 8, Chapter Three, for a description of the project quadrant and assessment rubric for one of the interdisciplinary units). Tech Prep II, which began a year after Tech Prep I, works in a manner that naturally builds on the skills developed in year one. In 1996, Franklin Heights added the WOW (Working on the Work) team, a group of four teachers who combined the legacy of the Tech Prep program with the 10 design principles for quality results proposed by Phillip Schlecty at the Center for Leadership in School Reform to create a program for approximately 80 grade nine students in the College Prep pathway (see Box 2, Chapter Three). These innovations have merged within a school culture that both endorses bold steps to find new answers to enduring problems and insists on continuity in structure, operation, and collegial work.

Reynoldsburg: In the last decade, Reynoldsburg has had numerous connections with various associations (e.g., North Central Association of Colleges and Schools) and networks, most notably the Coalition of Essential Schools. The Coalition affiliation has provided a platform for and a stimulus to a reform agenda that includes such restructuring activities as: a master schedule which incorporates both single and double-blocked periods; teaching teams for all grade nine and a cluster of grade 10 students and some teaching dyads in the junior and senior grades; a staff-development program that features induction opportunities for new teachers, a series of forums and workshops, and time for teachers to meet in Critical Friends Groups during the school day; and a collaborative management approach that involves all teachers on school-improvement committees. The restructuring strategies also support instructional innovation with particular emphases on small group teaching, independent study, and authentic assessment.

Taft: Since the late 1980s, Taft, has cooperated with numerous business interests, community agencies and universities and made use of the coordinating efforts of the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative (CYC). Together these partnerships introduced various programs and interventions to reduce the incidence of dropouts and failure, and to better prepare youth for the workplace and/or postsecondary education (see Box 20, Chapter Five). In 1993, the school adopted a CYC-initiated proposal for a school to work program known as T-CAP (Taft Career Academic Program). T-CAP stresses employability skills developed through studying about, preparing for, and getting experience in careers students may pursue after completing high school. It combines school-based learning (student cohorts and teacher teams, career-awareness units or courses), workplace learning (field trips, job shadowing, 16-month paid internships), and supervision and counseling through a team of 20 Youth Advocates employed by CYC. In addition to their support for T-CAP, the interdisciplinary teacher teams (English, mathematics, science, social studies) are matched with the same group of approximately 80 students from grades nine to 12 to provide a more personal and consistent learning environment (see Box 14, Chapter Four). Through its site-based management model of governance, Taft has a greater capacity to determine the selection and timing of those changes that are most needed. Change at Taft is experienced as a never-ending challenge amid the poverty and social problems that frame their reform agenda.

Comparing the TLC Schools

By selecting schools with such diverse profiles, we were assured of quite different change stories. We had not only 12 different schools but also 12 different case-study teams (over 50 people total, with one to two Ohio university researchers and two to three teachers or administrators from the school on each team), 12 different case research designs, 12 different case reports, and dozens of constructs, themes, issues, or tensions within these reports used to interpret and represent the changes in the 12 schools. Our challenge, then, was to devise a cross-case design which helped us to make sense of this mind-boggling array of seemingly disparate accounts. We did so by getting close to the schools and case teams, by formally tapping into interpretations and comparisons along the way, and, in the later stages, by reviewing the early and final drafts of the case reports for both "the common in what's varied" and "the varied in what's common." Through this interpretive cycle, we generated the positions that inform the following chapters.

Getting Close to the Schools and Case Teams

We were distant members on each of the 12 case teams. As such, in our visits to the schools, we were bound by the same guidelines we stipulated for the project. That is, during our 6-8 days in each school, we were mindful of the multiple contexts of change (in the classroom, in the corridors, as part of other communities). We watched for the many forms in which students and teachers learn (inquiry, collaboration, integration), and we sought clarity about how schools change (over time, in response to certain interventions, and improving on or departing from past practices). We documented the changes we observed (research *of* development), considered questions the case team or other educators at the school proposed (research *for* development), and incorporated our emerging understandings into actions which supported the school's change initiative (research *as* development). Our participation as case-team members kept us connected to the life of the schools both during and between visits, and consequently close to the evolving change stories.

Formally Tapping into Emerging Interpretations along the Way

At various junctures, we deliberately probed the perspectives of the case teams. Box 1 summarizes the data-gathering activities we used during the four project meetings. In case-team and cross-case groupings, we asked the case researchers to step back from their own fieldwork and consider alternative ways to interpret the data collected to date, and to compare these interpretations with those of other case teams. In this way, the case teams could share in our pursuit for common and unique threads in their change ventures.

Box 1

Cross-Case Data-Gathering Activities at Project Meetings

June 1997	Mind mapping conceptualizations of schools as learning communities (record of mind maps & interpretations collected) Brainstorming and recording current indicators of *collaboration, inquiry,* and *integration* in the case-study schools (notes collected)
September 1997	Review and critique of strengths and weaknesses of published samples of school case studies Cross-case sharing and feedback on draft case-study research plans (draft plans collected)
December 1997	Case teams prepare *case memos* which summarize interim findings and thoughts about the TLC schools as transforming learning communities (memos collected) Sharing and discussion of case memos in cross-case groups (tape recorded) Case-team analysis of significant moments in the change stories of their schools, and analysis of examples of connections across contexts (*classroom, corridors, community*) in those stories (notes collected)
June 1998	Cross-case peer review and feedback on draft case studies (feedback notes recorded)

Following our first round of school visits, we began to formulate cross-case comparisons and hypotheses to guide our subsequent visits. We did this by reviewing the data collected to that point and by arranging for our project research officer to interview each of us about our tentative cross-case observations and thoughts.

At the end of the data-gathering phase of the case teams, but before the completion of their first drafts, we traveled to each school one last time to conduct two-to-four-hour focus-group interviews with the case teams. We asked the case teams to address what they had learned from their research, but through a lens relevant to what we by then saw as some of the key cross-case areas.

Reviewing the Case Reports for Similarities and Differences

Prior to the final drafts of the case reports, we summarized our understanding of the change story of each school in two 10-to-15 page "reflective memos" — one sent to the case teams just before or immediately after receipt of their first drafts or outlines, and the other after the revisions of the first

drafts. (With some case teams, we had compared analyses earlier by electronic mail or briefer memos.) While the latter memos were primarily about modifications to the specific case report, we sometimes made suggestions which used comparisons with other schools to explain our requested revision. The ensuing conversations were additional opportunities to explore particular aspects of a school's change in relation to one or more of the other TLC schools.

As draft reports became final submissions, we immersed ourselves in one final round of what had possessed us throughout: namely, which interpretations were common to two or more schools, and which ones were exclusive to only one school. We now turn to those similarities that stand out most, recognizing that the lessons about change come from knowing both the similarities and the differences, the latter of which is best gained from the individual case reports of the 12 TLC schools.

Chapter Three

Reconstructing the Nature of Teachers' Work: In and on Behalf of the Classroom

When asked why they persist in their efforts to change what they do, many teachers and principals use one or more of the following imperatives to capture the essential force that drives them:

- Respond to student needs
- Do what's in the best interests of children
- Improve student performance
- Create relevant and inspiring learning experiences
- Provide the best educational opportunities for every learner

These rather clipped exhortations are more than slogans. They remind us that significant changes, however modest or bold, inevitably occur in the classroom within the dynamic interplay of students and teachers. To make a difference in the lives of students, then, requires strategic actions which directly engage teachers in the ongoing development of their classroom practices.

Transforming Classrooms

The dual definition used to describe the transforming character of schools as learning communities also applies to the classroom. As a verb, "transforming" denotes the strategic actions taken to stimulate changes in classroom practice (see the section "Classroom-Centered Strategic Actions" in this chapter). As an adjective, "transforming" recognizes that classrooms are in a perpetual state of becoming. Echoing the earlier account of school development, classrooms also go through various change cycles, in part as a result of the natural rhythm of the school year, in part to address unanticipated events, and in part as a result of deliberate attempts by teachers to alter the way things are done. Teachers both establish routines and routinely adjust and modify what they do as circumstances shift, relationships evolve, and

different needs and demands emerge. Regardless of the source, all changes enter into classrooms that themselves are perpetually changing. In the inevitable transitions that result, teachers have to ultimately determine how these reforms become part of the transforming classroom story.

Whether changes come from outside — and "outside" can refer to distant places such as the Department of Education or to nearby neighborly exchanges such as those with colleagues in the same grade, team or department — or through personal invention, teachers still have to work through their own answers to most of the following questions:

- Do I want to do this?
- Is it worth doing?
- Can I do it?
- Will I be able to adapt it to my situation?
- How do I know if I am doing it effectively?
- How do I determine if it works and if it is an improvement on what I did before?
- When, and under what conditions, can I stop doing it or replace it with something I can do better?

Various scenarios can ensue. For example, changes not of their own making and seemingly incompatible with current practice can take some time before teachers call them their own. Apparent resistance to or reluctance about the adoption of such changes may actually represent the early struggles of teachers trying to figure out how best to incorporate innovations that do not readily fit into what is unfolding in their classrooms. Even use of changes of their own decision may necessitate that teachers disown practices they have used for some time. (Often today's routines are yesterday's reforms.) With either scenario, teachers search for ways to combine both story lines — the one defined by the proposed changes and the other already in progress in their transforming classrooms — so that the revised and blended script becomes a richer and more compelling text. While this search follows its own unique path in each classroom, teachers increasingly look to other classrooms and other contexts to inform, frame, and stimulate changes within.

Opening Classroom Doors

Teachers are largely on their own in determining how they adapt to and reconstruct their transforming classrooms. They are not alone in determining how their changes interact with the development of other classrooms, teachers, and the school as a whole. With the classroom door flung open, teachers are both storytellers to and audiences for each other's changing practices. And with a greater

number of forums outside the classroom in which to swap these stories, they are discovering more and more avenues for mutual influence and support.

From the momentary exchanges to the program work of teams to the decision making of school-improvement committees, teachers join with colleagues, parents and other stakeholders to examine and initiate changes in classroom and school practice. In the course of sharing information, teachers identify where their transforming classroom stories intersect. From these connections, they can explore how to strengthen their common ground and, in the process, enhance the changes that distinguish the classroom stories each brings to the table. Such deliberations are not without their problems and disagreements.

Many teachers have a deep investment in what they do. Opening their classroom doors may expose important differences in how teachers respond to student needs, create relevant learning experiences, or provide educational opportunities for every learner. Questioning can turn into interrogation, scrutiny into criticism, and dissent into opposition. Under the strain of such conflict, teachers are torn between recoiling from cooperative structures to protect their classrooms and persisting in the debate to influence what may become a better environment for their students. Whether in the form of challenges of the moment or tensions that surface in times of change, they are forces to reckon with in any strategic action.

Classroom-Centered Strategic Actions

In any attempts to change classroom practices, players have to respect the developing stories in each classroom (Transforming Classrooms), find ways to share and combine these stories across the school (Opening Classroom Doors), and negotiate the rightful place of teachers in making decisions about reform. Strategic actions, then, engage teachers in a weblike set of initiatives where they interrelate their work across contexts in order to make significant changes in how they interact with students.

We have identified five strategic actions, two of which occur primarily through what individual teachers do in their own classrooms: redefining the work of students and reorienting the practice of teaching. The three others occur primarily through what teachers, in concert with others (e.g., colleagues, administrators, resource personnel, parents, representatives from business or social agencies), pursue on behalf of their classrooms but located beyond their classrooms. These strategic actions involve: creating conditions to enable and stimulate innovation, developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences, and working and learning outside the school. Together, the five strategic actions keep the change efforts of teachers centered on their interactions with students (see the section "Enhancing Classroom Change" in this chapter).

In the following sections, we describe the range of strategic actions used in TLC schools. We end with a comment on the importance of interrelating strategic actions and an elaboration of how to extend changes in the classroom, based on some of the more transforming practices in the TLC schools.

Making Changes in the Classroom

Much of classroom-based change consists of everyday adjustments teachers make in response to the personal and contextual variability of the classroom. For researchers in search of the profound change story, these daily modifications often go unnoticed, or at best, are recognized as things good teachers do. Yet these seemingly intuitive adjustments are not merely part of the naturally unfolding script of transforming classrooms. They can also represent an almost imperceptible, but nonetheless important, step teachers take in a more prolonged and deliberate effort to significantly change their practices.

More presumed than declared, an expectation is in the air that teachers will pursue the school change agenda in a manner appropriate to the particular realities of their classrooms. In the idiosyncratic world of schools, there appears to be as many distinct classroom-based change stories as there are teachers. Yet, at the level of strategic actions, two overlapping approaches dominate, where teachers either redefine the work of students or reorient the practice of teaching (and often a blend of both). These focus on how students and teachers interact, with the one affecting these interactions through changes in the kind of work students experience, and the other through changes in the stance teachers assume in their relationship with students. By altering their pedagogical pact, teachers strive to create a more equitable and effective learning environment for every student.

Redefining the Work of Students

In this strategic action, teachers are forever inquisitive about what it is like to be students in their classrooms and school. They are mindful of how students spend their day, what they ask students to do, and the varied ways students react to the work. As they get closer to how students experience the classroom, teachers develop a greater appreciation of student perspectives and the integral place of these views in shaping both student and teacher development.

Within the classroom, this burgeoning engagement with student perspectives appears in many forms. For example, a team at Franklin Heights uses the Working on the Work (WOW) framework to organize what students do (See Box 2).

Box 2

Working on the Work (WOW) at Franklin Heights

A grade-nine WOW team of four teachers (representing social studies, English, biology and business) creates projects based on the following 10 design characteristics developed by Phillip Schlecty at the Center for Leadership in School Reform in Louisville, Kentucky:

- content and substance
- product focus
- clear and compelling product standards
- affiliation
- affirmation of performance
- choice
- novelty and variety
- organization of knowledge
- authenticity
- protection from adverse consequences

(Posgai and Uline with Palmer and Ray, 1999)

The following summary lists how the work of students is changing in some of the TLC schools:

Changing patterns in student work	*TLC school examples*
Share their ideas about and work through their interpretations of classroom events	Constructivist mathematics (Lomond) Writing workshops (Talawanda) Employability Seminars (Taft) Self-evaluation rubrics (Federal Hocking)
Examine topics in greater depth	Projects (Franklin Heights) Thesis Course (Reynoldsburg) Socratic Seminars (Federal Hocking) Creating local history website (Miami East North)
Assist, guide and critique the work of others	Buddies, grade-six students helping grade-one students (Brentmoor) Cooperative learning (Dawson-Bryant)
Participate in authentic activities (tasks, productions, presentations)	Exhibitions (Franklin Heights) Performance tasks (Lomond) Triangular conferences (Lomond) Historical simulations (Dawson-Bryant) Multimedia presentations (East Muskingum)

In these shifts, the work of students is more expressive, probing, problem-based, interdisciplinary and related to their lives outside school. They work more regularly with other students, have more responsibility in the design and assessment of their learning, and have a greater investment in activities that have some utility beyond fulfilling course requirements. In a few schools, students have also extended their work to such areas as organizing their own timetable (at Reynoldsburg, this is known as arena scheduling, where students can make choices about whether they want single- or double-blocked classes, which teacher they prefer, and when and in what sequence their courses occur); voicing their concerns about their school experience on one of the many cadres in the system of governance (See Box 3 for an account of the grade-four cadre, Power Kids at Miami East North); and representing the interests of students on school-improvement committees (Reynoldsburg and Franklin Heights) and hiring committees (Federal Hocking).

Box 3

Power Kids Cadre at Miami East North

"Power Kids" is the name given to the group of grade-four students who meet regularly with the principal (and more recently with one of the teachers) to discuss the principles and practices of an Accelerated School (AS), their views about what is happening at Miami East North, and their suggestions about what else the school can do to improve the learning of all students. The composition of the group changes each time so that every "senior" student (grade four is the oldest age group in the school) has a chance to be a Power Kid. These conversations have led to such actions as the designation of special days (e.g., Crazy Socks Day) and a survey to determine if students get hungry around 10:30 a.m. each day.

In addition to the Power Kids, students in all grades provide input into the AS inquiry process during the "taking stock" phase. For example, in the fall of 1997, a parent volunteer in a grade-one class took students aside one by one to interview them about needed improvements in the school. Their ideas, along with the views of other stakeholders, inform subsequent stages in inquiry including setting priorities, identifying and investigating problems, and selecting and implementing solutions. Students play an integral part as the school engages in this process.

(Poetter with Gay, Elifritz and Hofacker, 1999)

In redefining the work of students in the manner delineated above, teachers in effect change the usual location and role students have. While still the prime benefactors of reform, students also emerge as insiders — even co-conspirators — in the process. Teachers train students in how the various innovations alter their traditional patterns of classroom interaction. They ask students to teach and assess their peers according to the principles of these new practices. As students become more familiar adept at this kind of work, their reactions become more reliable barometers of the state of implementation and, consequently, a more valued source of development for teachers eager to evaluate their capacity to stimulate such work. In delving into ways to change what students do, this strategic action also compels teachers to reconsider the part they play in redefining student work. Such a reconceptualization can be its own catalyst to change, as the next strategic action demonstrates.

Reorienting the Practice of Teaching

Another tactic for stimulating change in student–teacher interactions is for teachers to deconstruct and reconstruct what they bring to the relationship. In this reflective interrogation, teachers take stock of their pedagogical habits and the extent to which these practices foster the kind of learning experiences they desire for their students. Such self inquiry can lead some teachers to make minor modifications to their instructional repertoire, while others may rethink and replace long-standing teaching

approaches with more persuasive models and frameworks. At the heart of this exploration is the challenge for teachers to revisit and, where necessary, reinvent their core image of teaching.

Most of the TLC schools seek to give more prominence to coaching, a shorthand for an orientation to teaching which changes the balance in what teachers do in classrooms. The following outline depicts this desired shift:

More about	*Less about*
Facilitating learning	Directing learning
Engaging students in relevant experiences	Summarizing and structuring pertinent resources
Encouraging invention and production	Organizing information
Deliberating about meaningful questions	Conveying required content
Comparing ideas and finding connections	Ordering tasks and reinforcing best answers
Empowering learners	Managing classrooms

More concretely, teachers design fewer lessons but more extended and intensive units; distribute fewer worksheets and receive more substantial student products; rely less on textbooks and more on local and networked resources; lecture less and discuss more; use fewer rows and more tables (signifying greater frequency of groupwork); spend less time at the chalkboard and more time in activities both inside (e.g., laboratories, simulations) and outside (e.g., field trips, community projects) the school; test less and assess more often; and generally focus more on students and on what and how they learn.

Some schools explicitly include coaching in their reform agenda. As members of the Coalition of Essential Schools, Reynoldsburg and Federal Hocking embrace the "student-as-worker" principle: "The governing practical metaphor of the school should be student-as-worker and teacher-as-coach." At Brentmoor, one of the Paideia principles has coaching as one of the three essential teaching approaches: "The three kinds of teaching that should occur in our schools are didactic teaching of subject matter, coaching that produces the skills of learning, and Socratic questioning in seminar discussion" (See Box 4). While not couched in the language of coaching, the spirit and intent of this metaphor are present in most of the other TLC schools.

Box 4

Didactic Instruction, Coaching and the Socratic Seminar at Brentmoor

In didactic instruction, students learn facts and concepts through the use of textbooks, lectures, films and study guides. The teacher selects appropriate content that is delivered in a lively, and inquiry-based manner to engage the learner's mind, not just reinforce the memorization of facts. Thus, students are invited to inquire, ask questions, and discover new information. A typical didactic lesson involves the teacher presenting a problem to her second graders, such as "Just how many pumpkin seeds do you think each pumpkin contains?" Students record their guesses, then set about carving their pumpkins and counting the seeds, grouping them in piles of 10 and sets of 100. Students learn "estimation" and hypothesizing" through an inquiry approach. At some points in the activity, students coach each other.

In coaching, students practice and master skills introduced in their didactic classroom experiences. At different times, teachers, students, and parents serve as coaches in Brentmoor classrooms. Coaches use a variety of strategies to involve students in guided practice and hands-on activities. Sometimes, coaches devise guided discovery (such as the pumpkin-seed problem) or guided practice to help students make connections and master skills. In coaching, many times, students are assisted by their teacher and fellow students or outside experts to produce projects which illustrate mastery of skills. Coaching may address a simple skill, a long-term project, or assistance in completing a specific task.

Socratic seminars are a unique aspect of the Paideia model. In seminars, students focus on an ambiguous text, answer open-ended questions, express opinions and provide rationale, and respond to other students' comments. Designed to promote higher-level thinking skills on texts from literature, the arts, historical documents and current events, seminars encourage each student to think critically, understand ideas, solve problems, make decisions, resolve conflicts, and apply knowledge to new situations. Key skills students apply in seminars include articulation, conceptual understanding, and listening. Seminars provide experiences that foster intrinsic motivation and peer-generated enthusiasm. The rules and structure of the Socratic seminar differentiate it from other classroom practices.

(Sekayi, Peterman, Stakitch, and Caputo with Sawchik, 1999)

Teachers are charged to facilitate the multiple intelligences of students at Cranwood, to build on the strengths of all students through inquiry-oriented learning experiences at Miami East North (see Box 5), to work with how students make sense of mathematical concepts through constructivist approaches at Lomond, and to guide students through a series of language-development activities at Dawson-Bryant. In the three middle schools — East Muskingum, Galion, and Talawanda — teachers sit-

uate their instructional reforms within an emerging middle school philosophy characterized by more personalized, hands-on, and responsive teaching. Each of these reforms pose different challenges for teachers. Some have to apply specific practices prescribed in the program they adopted (e.g., Dawson-Bryant's language arts program); some have to extend their instructional repertoire based on examples and explicit frameworks (e.g., inquiry at Miami East North); some have to develop their own approaches from the core principles of a model (e.g., multiple intelligences at Cranwood) or general direction (e.g., middle school orientation at East Muskingum, Galion, Talawanda); and some invent practices as part of a search for innovative approaches not found elsewhere (e.g., constructivist teaching at Lomond). Yet despite these varied challenges, many teachers embrace an enabling, interactive and guiding orientation similar to what schools like Reynoldsburg, Federal Hocking, and Brentmoor call coaching.

Box 5

Family Meetings at Miami East North

Once a month, students work in mixed-grade (kindergarten through fourth) groups. Each group has approximately 15 students and two staff members. Every adult in the school takes part such that some groups have two teachers and others have a teacher or principal and one of the classified staff (e.g., custodian). These pairs take turns in planning a lesson that all groups follow. The primary purpose of these lessons is to foster an appreciation of the three core principles of an Accelerated School: 1) unity of purpose, 2) empowerment with responsibility, and 3) building on strength.

These family meetings typically review the students' understanding of one or more of these principles and provide an opportunity for them to display their interpretations throughout the school. For example, students have created unity-of-purpose posters to illustrate what this principle looks like or sounds like in the school — helping kids read, picking up trash, carrying books for another, opening a door for somebody, writing out the lunch menu. Or they have developed strength booklets by completing the following sentences: "The important thing about me is that ..."; "I'm good at ..."; "I can ..."; "I like to ..."; "But the important thing about me is that..." The principles can be further applied through another activity. In one lesson, students designed Valentine cards to respond to letters sent by their adopted grandparents in a nearby manor. Family meetings are occasions where older students can help younger students, where every adult has the chance to nurture and to guide, and where everyone has some stake in the development of the school community.

(Poetter with Gay, Elifritz and Hofacker, 1999)

Reorienting the practice of teaching is a strategic action in which teachers critically examine and adapt what they do in classrooms. Usually prompted by the wider school reform agenda, this self-directed change process usually includes considerable flexibility for teachers to revise their techniques based

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on the broader principles that govern their change initiatives. Interestingly, the variations in practice occur within an implicit consensus among the TLC schools towards a more coach-like orientation to teaching. This unspoken bargain — one that trades latitude in the specific approaches they adopt for agreement in the underlying assumptions that inform these approaches — is a key catalyst for change and one of the cornerstones of transforming learning communities.

Not surprisingly, the kind of qualities most evident in coaching reciprocally relate to the kind of student work most sought in the previous strategic action. The more fundamental dimensions of coaching — facilitating learning and empowering learners — are mirrored by a desire for students to have greater control over decisions about their work. This mutuality is reflected in the following desired changes in how teachers and students use classroom time:

Teachers should spend more time	*Students should spend more time*
Deliberating about meaningful questions	Sharing their ideas about and work through their interpretations of classroom events
Engaging students in relevant experiences	Examining topics in greater depth
Comparing ideas and finding connections	Assisting, guiding and critiquing the work of others
Encouraging invention and production	Participating in authentic activities (tasks, productions, presentations)

Though they start from different positions, these two strategic actions nonetheless are designed to alter student–teacher interactions so that students are more involved in their own development and teachers are more inclined to create the conditions for this to happen. Yet it takes more than classroom-based strategic actions for this to happen across the school. The work of teachers outside the classroom must also focus on changes in student–teacher interactions, something those in the TLC schools accomplish through strategic actions as described in the following sections of this chapter.

Making Changes on Behalf of the Classroom

The next sections of this chapter describe how the work of teachers has extended beyond the classroom to areas relevant to but beyond the school. Teachers devote more of their day to committees, councils, teams and the like, deliberating about matters of importance to the entire school. In the TLC schools, these deliberations are often occasions to represent and negotiate their classroom inter-

ests. They know their students. They understand how best to organize and operate their own classrooms. They have a sense of what they value most and what is feasible. They recognize how changes in their work eventually influence what students experience. In this sense, school change remains very much a classroom-centered endeavour, where strategic actions are directed at reconstructing the work of teachers in ways that enhance their capacity to support the development of their students.

The challenge is to determine how teachers can best work together and with other stakeholders in order to provoke changes in student–teacher interactions. No longer on their own or attentive to only their own classrooms, teachers shared in a search for how best to change their practices. While involved in this joint endeavour, teachers employ three strategic actions to explicitly keep the focus on the classroom: creating conditions to enable and stimulate innovation, developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences, and working and learning outside the school. By coming together with colleagues and other stakeholders associated with the school, teachers mobilize those forces that can most influence the circumstances affecting classroom life. They do so on behalf of their students.

Creating Conditions to Enable and Stimulate Innovation

In recent years, one of the most frequently employed strategic actions in TLC schools has been to re-organize people, space or time. Such restructuring disrupts traditional patterns of where teachers work, with whom (i.e., with one or more colleagues and with different groups of students), for what period of time, and on which schedule, initially to enable and increasingly to stimulate innovative classroom practices.

For some, this strategic action is based on a belief that schools need to give teachers a chance to do good work by removing obstacles that interfere in this pursuit. So, if teachers find it difficult to get together to share ideas and prepare joint activities, then teams can be formed, teachers can be relocated so their classrooms are side by side, and schedules can be modified so teams can have a common planning period. If it is logistically problematic to arrange for more extended time for projects or for experiences outside the school, then periods can be blocked and students can be grouped into cohorts so that pairs or teams of teachers can adjust schedules within their designated blocks to suit the time requirements of different activities. If responding to the unique needs of every student is the concern, then courses can be redesigned to last only a semester (more intensive study with longer periods and fewer students per term), or teachers can work with the same cohort of students for more than one year. Addressing organizational barriers, then, frees teachers to explore other pedagogical possibilities.

For others, this strategic action emanates from the structural dimensions of the innovation itself. Organizational structures are modified in order to redefine student work and its orientation to teaching. Longer periods of time for more in-depth and experiential learning, fewer but more concentrated preparations for both students and teachers, greater access to peer support for both students and teachers, greater access to teachers, and more interaction with fewer learners are required for the successful implementation of a coaching orientation to teaching, for example. Reorganizing people, space or time, then, is integral to the innovative practices desired in the classroom.

In the next chapter, we elaborate the varied configurations of how teachers work together in dyads, triads or teams. Here we describe these rearrangements in terms of their effect on student experience. It is common for students in the TLC schools to learn in one or more of the following interconnected settings:

Teaming Strategies

Two or Three Disciplines/Classes	Periodically, one or more lessons or a unit combine subjects or classes (most TLC schools). Courses are linked through parallel content, complementary assignments or thematic study. Examples are physical education, music and visual arts at Galion and Brentmoor; English plus social studies, and mathematics plus science at Federal Hocking; art, English and history at Franklin Heights; mathematics plus science, and government plus English at Reynoldsburg. In another version, three groups of 60 grade-five students (two classes) each work with a two-teacher team in a common area at East Muskingum.
Grade-Level Teams	Four or more classes work with a team of four or more teachers in core subject areas. Example combinations: science, mathematics, social studies, English, and reading at Galion, Talawanda and East Muskingum; mathematics, English, science and social studies at Taft and Reynoldsburg. At Franklin Heights, three different teams use three different combinations: mathematics, English, global studies, science, Spanish and keyboarding in the Tech Prep I team; social studies, mathematics, science, English, computer applications, and principles of technology in the Tech Prep II team; and social studies, English, biology and business in the WOW team. Within the cohort of students assigned to the teams at Franklin Heights and Reynoldsburg, students are further divided into groups of five. Students remain in their fivesomes for all classes taken with the teaching team for a minimum of one term. The courses however, do vary the cluster of fivesomes that make up each class.
Multi-age and "Looped" Classes (See Box 6)	Different age groups work together for one or more lessons, or a unit: kindergarten to grade four in Family Lessons at Miami East North; grades two and three for science and social studies at Cranwood; and grades one and two for projects at Brentmoor.

Students stay with the same teacher for two years in some classes at Cranwood, for two to three years (grades six to eight) on the Fighting Falcon team at Galion, and for four years (grades nine to 12) at Taft.

Some classes at Cranwood loop with multi-age groups for the full year. Each class has two age groups, the younger segment in their first and the older segment in their second of two years with the same teacher.

Under circumstances where teachers work in dyads, triads or teams, students are more likely to study topics, participate in activities, or complete assignments which connect classrooms, disciplines or courses. As teachers pursue like-minded practices, students that can also anticipate a more consistent pattern in the routines, rules or sanctions for misbehavior teachers use. And as teachers adapt similar practices and work together, students learn to appreciate the interdependence of previously separate areas (a connection we examine further in the section "Developing Cross-Disciplinary Learning Experiences" in this chapter).

Box 6

Multi-age Classrooms and Looping at Cranwood

The classrooms are organized into three main configurations varied by age/grade and time:

(1) Self-contained, single grade — for example, a group of 20-25 kindergarten students who are with one teacher for one school year.

(2) Looping — for example, a group of 25 grade-one students who stay with the same teacher for two years.

(3) Multi-age looping — two versions: (i) A group of 10-15 grade-four and 10-15 grade-five students with the same teacher. In any given year, the grade-four students are in their first year and the grade-five students are in their second of two years in the same classroom. (ii) A group of 20-25 grade-two students who stay with the same teacher for two years. For some of the day, students combine with students in a grade-three classroom to work in multi-age groups for particular subjects or projects.

Teachers submit proposals for their preferred configuration, one of which is outlined in the following plan for a multi-age looping organization:

- Teachers keep their same students for a two-year period. One teacher teaches a first-grade class and the other a second-grade class (keeping as many second graders as she has now and just adding from the other teacher's classroom to get to 25 students). The next year, the teacher who had first grade will move with her students up to second grade, and the second-grade teacher will get new first-grade students.

Box 6 (continued)

- During the morning, the teachers will keep their grade-specific class for mathematics, reading, and language arts lessons.
- Every afternoon between 2:30 p.m. and 3:45 p.m., the teachers will combine their classes for either a team teaching lesson or a multi-age configuration where each teacher will teach either science and health or social studies. If there is a special class during this time, the multi-age class will go to that special class.
- In the afternoons, one teacher will teach social studies, and the other teacher will teach science. There will also be team teaching at least once a week, where we will utilize the literacy area for group lessons or learning centers about a specific subject.
- We will need to have the same special subject times in the afternoon so we can use it for planning and so the students can take advantage of multi-age special subjects.
- We can also support our inclusion policy. A child may fit into one or more of the three different segments, in the morning with either the first- or second-grade classroom, or in the afternoon with the multi-age group.

This plan complements the theories proposed by Cranwood Learning Academy. Multi-age teaching will be in evidence, the multiple intelligences will be emphasized in the classrooms, and children will be better prepared for their grade proficiency tests.

(Peck with Harry, Trebec and Veccia, 1999)

The more interconnected behavior of teachers can also serve as a model for students. Teachers model many of the same practices they encourage in their students: sharing ideas; illustrating, giving advice about, or critiquing the application of a new approach; and using their ongoing dialogue as a reference point and catalyst for further advancement. Thus students not only have a more interactive classroom (with teachers in various cooperative arrangements and students in small groups and cohorts) and more interrelated work patterns, but also have an example (in the collegial acts of teachers) of how they should relate to one another in this reconfigured environment.

At first glance, the most obvious and only prominent spatial strategy is the relocation of teachers so that they can interact with colleagues on dyads, triads, and teams (Galion, East Muskingum, Talawanda, Taft, Reynoldsburg, Franklin Heights), or at the same grade level (Cranwood, Lomond). Yet many are acutely aware of the effect space has on the social character of change in schools. Teachers in TLC schools that have gone through a major renovation (Galion, Franklin Heights, Reynoldsburg, Federal Hocking, Dawson-Bryant) frequently recount the impact on the traffic and gathering habits of staff and students. How people move through a building; where they choose to meet before and after school, at lunch, or during planning periods; how they choose to design and furnish their own territory; and how

they negotiate the use of open or flexible space (e.g., Brentmoor, East Muskingum, Reynoldsburg, Galion, and Franklin Heights have some rooms with movable walls) are part of the social geography of change. As teachers and students strive to work differently, the feel and look of the place begins to evolve. They may discover that some aspects of their environment are not conducive to this new work and, consequently, may try to reconstruct their classrooms (Lomond and Cranwood replaced a number of desks with tables in order to support more group-oriented learning). A more enabling space can in turn stimulate further innovation.

In contrast to spatial changes, reorganizing the schedule to concentrate or find time for innovative priorities is a more prevalent change strategy. A number of TLC schools designate time during the day for teachers to plan and learn together or to participate in school-improvement committees (for a more extended discussion on these out-of-classroom activities, see Chapter Four). For those time tactics that also affect the lives of students, a number of TLC schools engage in the following:

Scheduling Tactics

Schedule longer periods	Federal Hocking has four 80-minute periods each day. East Muskingum has three schedules. Grade-five starts and finishes one hour later than the rest of the school, and the students have the flexibility to organize their own schedule in each of the paired classes (six classes organized into three 60-student sections, each taught by a two-teacher team). Grades six and seven have three academic and one Arts block with 80 minutes in each block, and grade eight follows a 60-minute block schedule. Reynoldsburg offers both single (50-minute) and double-blocked (100-minute) periods. The double-blocked period can be for one subject completed over one semester or for two subjects which interrelate their courses over the full school year.
Block two or more periods, once or twice a day, for a teaching team and a cohortof students	Teams have one or two blocks of time in a day, in self-contained blocks, within which to make their own decisions about how best to organize the delivery of courses, interdisciplinary units, assignments and tests, presentations, or work outside the school. The teams at Galion have 212 minutes, those at Reynoldsburg have 200 minutes; and those at Franklin Heights have 256 minutes for Tech Prep I, 236 minutes for Tech Prep II, and 198 minutes for WOW.
Rearrange the schedule to allocate time for special needs and priorities	Lomond has scheduled three lunch periods to create longer blocks of instructional time for mathematics in the morning and more flexibility in the timing of special classes over the day. Galion has a 20-minute flex period where individual teachers organize peer tutoring and provide remedial assistance for students who need further support.

Franklin Heights has added zero period (7:00 a.m.–7:50 a.m.) before the official start of the day so that three teachers can offer an integrated art, history and English course.

Reynoldsburg ends the student day after period seven at 2:00 p.m. Period eight is for teachers to meet with students, parents, professional-development groups, or school improvement committees.

Time matters. Teachers need time in longer stretches, concentrated and uninterrupted, and sufficiently under their control so that they can regularly adapt when and for how long students learn without organizational intrusions. The rhythm of the school day has changed for students. Time is chunked differently (e.g., not always in 50-minute segments) and can continue to be re-organized within their new blocks. The longer segments provide for more in-depth study and more opportunities to engage with other students and teachers (individually or occasionally as a pair or group) during this study. The slot for special assistance in the schedule give students an official moment for help they previously had to seek after hours. As a reclaimed resource, students and teachers increasingly negotiate time in ways that fit the rhythm of their work.

In this strategic action, teachers and administrators recognize that classroom innovations rarely take hold without changes in the conditions of the workplace. They also know that: (1) Changing the conditions of the workplace by itself does not prompt innovation; (2) Enabling conditions are sometimes part of innovation (as in looping at Cranwood) and invariably are necessary to the innovation; and (3) Changes in conditions eventually can stimulate further innovation, but usually after teachers and students have had some time to learn how to take advantage of the enabling conditions and the innovative possibilities they engender. One innovation for which changing conditions are particularly crucial is the development of cross-disciplinary learning experiences, to which we now turn.

Developing Cross-Disciplinary Learning Experiences

While the primary change force resides in the promotion of cross-disciplinary learning experiences, this strategic action can be the most robust and far reaching when it is also intercontextual, that is, when the cross-disciplinary work occurs in more than one setting. Many teachers in the TLC schools are exploring approaches which move beyond the boundaries of any one discipline. These epistemological pursuits are sometimes multidisciplinary (where each discipline examines a particular aspect of a common area of study), sometimes interdisciplinary (where disciplines identify a common element which they will study together), and sometimes transdisciplinary (where a theme or problem defines the focus of study and not particular or combined contributions of two or more disciplines). Certain forms of cross-disciplinary learning can involve different levels of intercontextual work, ranging from comparatively modest associations with those outside the school (e.g., at designated points in an interdiscipli-

nary project) to the joint design and delivery of a transdisciplinary unit by teachers and community educators across many locations inside and outside the school.

For the previous strategic action — creating conditions to enable and stimulate innovation — we list three settings, two of which provide platforms for cross-disciplinary learning: (1) teaching in dyads and triads (two or three disciplines) and (2) teaching in grade-level teams (typically four or more disciplines). Here teachers regularly develop activities or units that require some linkages across two or more disciplines. For example, in 1995-96, Brentmoor teachers planned units across subjects related to three schoolwide themes: (i)Together We Can Make a Difference (about school and class rules, conflict resolution, friends, manners, respect, responsibility and reputation); (ii) Kids, Customs and Cultures (combining the arts — art, music, physical education — with literature, science, mathematics and social studies); and (iii) Inside Out (focus on skeletons, the earth, inventions and technology). At Talawanda, cross-disciplinary projects are planned schoolwide (e.g., Earth Week), for the same grade level (e.g., diversity unit — biological and cultural diversity in science, language arts and social studies), and by teams (e.g., Holocaust unit). Informally, in numerous TLC schools, it is common for teachers from nearby classes or related disciplines to share resources, link lessons, develop an interlocking assignment, align segments of courses, or generally keep each other informed about what they do. What usually begins as an in-school disposition to foster more connectedness in student work, sometimes is extended by affiliations with external groups who are willing to come to the school in support of these cross-disciplinary activities.

Outsiders such as parents, local experts or other community members (e.g., from business, industry, government, social and cultural associations, higher education) often have a specific instructional responsibility, especially in assessment (see working and learning outside the school). In its interdisciplinary unit "Can You Dig It?", the Tech Prep I team at Franklin Heights places students in project teams to create their own ancient civilizations. Over a period of eight weeks, each project team maintains a portfolio partitioned so that individual and group work are in separate sections. Students complete disciplined-based activities (individual portfolio) and interdisciplinary activities (group portfolio) and two presentations, one that explains a cultural universal (individual presentation) and the other that describes the results of an archeological dig of their invented civilization (group presentation). See Box 7 for the project quadrant. Typically, the teacher in each of the six classes asks a Franklin Heights' teacher, one or two upper-class students, and a parent to evaluate the presentations. Their assessment is based on six criteria: professionalism, organization, presentation skills, content, visual aids, and creativity (See Box 8). The presentations constitute 45 percent of the project grade (Individual Portfolio, 30 points; Group Portfolio, 15; Peer Assessment, 10; Individual Presentation, 30; and Group Presentations, 15). By the fourth and final interdisciplinary unit of the year, the presentations represent 50 percent of the project grade, with the individual and group presentations receiving equal weight. Parents act as teaching associates, determining the level of performance on interdisciplinary work, an influence extended to parents and others in the community in those schools that use presentations and exhibitions to assess student learning (in addition to Franklin Heights: Reynoldsburg, Federal Hocking, and Galion).

Box 7

A Project Quadrant for the Unit 'Can You Dig It' at Franklin Heights

CAN YOU DIG IT?

The portfolio must be in the order listed below for full credit.

INDIVIDUAL PORTFOLIO	GROUP PORTFOLIO
ALGEBRA * Number System Calculations * Prefix for Metric System ENGLISH * Myth Logs * Pyramid Poem * Movie Review GLOBAL STUDIES * Pictographs/Glyphs/Codex * Compare & Contrast Paper (Egypt & Maya) SCIENCE * Sea Floor Spreading SPANISH * Indian Packet KEYBOARDING No separate section for this project only	TIMELINE * Combination of 4 timelines ** Spanish ** Algebra ** Science ** Global Studies NEW LANGUAGE CULTURAL ANALYSIS GEOGRAPHIC MAP * Located on World Atlas * Copied & Pasted on ClarisWorks * Labeled
INDIVIDUAL PRESENTATION (5 minutes per person) GOAL: To explain 1 cultural universal of your group's new culture: * Values/Ethics * Economics * Food/Clothing/Shelter * Political Organization * Family and Kin * Attitude Toward Unknown * Communications * Arts * Recreation EXPLAIN: * Your universal was patterned after which culture? * Why did you pattern your universal after this culture? * How does your visual aid represent your universal? (Hint: a fossil could be made to represent any universal.)	**GROUP PRESENTATION** (5 minutes for entire group – Everyone must speak!) GOAL: To develop a new culture as a group and to explain general information about your new culture:[1] * Time * Geographic Location — Map required * Physical Description — People/Architect * Miscellaneous Information POSSIBLE VISUAL AIDS: * Group Pyramid Structure * Group Calendar * Stele * Fossil * Symbol and/or Flag [1] You must use a mixture/variety of the cultures studied (Mayan, Egyptian, Incan, Aztec, Roman, and Greek) to develop your own culture. Do not just copy one culture.

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Box 8

Assessment Rubric for the Unit "Can You Dig It" at Franklin Heights

PRESENTATION EVALUATION WORKSHEET

GROUP _____

NAMES

	1	2	3	4
I. INDIVIDUAL PRESENTATION = 30 points total				
A. Professionalism - **4 points** possible 1. Punctuality 2. Appropriate attire 3. Appropriate language 4. Respectful to others				
B. Organization - **4 points** possible 1. Evidence of preparation 2. Continuity				
C. Presentation Skills - **4 points** possible 1. Eye Contact 2. Posture 3. Voice inflection/volume 4. Fluency				
D. Content - 1 universal only - **9 points** possible 1. Explain 1 cultural universal. 2. Which culture studied was the basis & why? 3. How is it represented in your dig?				
E. Visual Aids - **6 points** possible 1. Neatness 2. Useful in clarifying presentation 3. Uniqueness				
F. Creativity - **3 points** possible (Maintains interest throughout the presentation)				
TOTALS (30 points possible)	_____	_____	_____	_____

I. GROUP PRESENTATION: DESCRIBING THE CULTURE — 15 points total

1. Organization/Presentation Skills — **3 points** possible _____
2. Content: New Culture as a Whole — **6 points** possible _____
   1. Time
   2. Geographic Location
   3. Physical Description — people/architect
   4. Other relative information
3. Visual Aids: **3 points** possible — Map required & at least 2 other _____
4. Creativity: **3 points** possible _____

GROUP PRESENTATION TOTAL: _____ (15 points possible)

Two teams — Connections at Reynoldsburg and WOW at Franklin Heights — have based one of their interdisciplinary units in one discipline and the themes pull in the other disciplines represented on the team. However, these units also require some coordination with another school in the vicinity. The Connection Team has their grade-10 students review the elements of culture in their Global Studies class and then apply this framework in a study of the culture of a nearby high school. The students present their cultural portrayal to a panel from the observed high school (consisting of one to two students, a teacher, and one to two staff) who both discuss and assess the defensibility of the account. The WOW team designed a change project in cooperation with four grade-two teachers at an elementary school in the community. Each of the four grade-nine WOW classes worked with a grade-two class in the elementary school cafeteria for a 45-minute period on Animal and Plant Change, a topic determined by the grade-two teachers. The grade-nine students had to create a hands-on activity and a children's book to teach the basic concepts of change and to develop a strategy to evaluate the effectiveness of the activity, the book, and the quality of the learning experience for themselves. In ventures of this kind, the quality of the interdisciplinary student product is dependent on the interorganizational cooperation teachers can establish.

At Taft, the Taft Career Academic Program (T-CAP) offers a school-to-work experience to all students through three prongs: school-based learning (with special classes, units or courses which explore career options and stress employability skills), work-based learning (with job shadowing and field trips to worksites in the early years and a 16-month paid internship in the last stage of high school), and mentoring (with Youth Advocates employed by the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative). The parallel efforts of Taft and the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative to prepare students for the work force are bold attempts at transdisciplinary, intercontextual learning. Its success relies not only on a more thematic (work-centered) approach to program, but also on a level of joint work (between Taft and the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative) beyond most relationships described above. Needless to say, this is a complex, radical change that requires constant attention to the thematic focus and structure, and to the partnership responsible for ensuring that this work-centered approach has an impact on all students.

In this strategic action, it is possible for teachers to remain relatively modest in their cross-disciplinary approaches. Multidisciplinary strategies tend to align content or skills (e.g., introduction of a mathematics function prior to its application in a science unit) but leave teachers in each discipline to organize their course as they see fit and largely independent of one another. Interdisciplinary strategies often identify a topic of study where concepts and processes of two or more disciplines are connected through a common task (e.g., a presentation, product or exhibition). Though disciplines remain prominent, the knowledge needed for the task is more than the sum of discrete subjects. Disciplines are even further in the background in transdisciplinary strategies. Here, themes or problems compel the pursuit of knowledge that both transcends and transforms disciplinary boundaries. The more innovative teachers try to be about linkages across disciplines, the more they break with discipline-centered ideas about knowledge.

This knowledge terrain, in whatever disciplinary configuration, can broaden in scope and complexity when the changes prompted by this strategic action connect with those generated by the next strategic action: working and learning outside the school. As cross-disciplinary learning is located in more places and is negotiated with more partners, more transdisciplinary possibilities emerge. In this state, students engage in learning experiences that are problem-based, situated across two or more settings, and constructed by a more diverse teaching cast (including students). This is clearly a profound departure from the disciplinary structures and institution-bound habits of most schools, a frontier some TLC teachers are, nonetheless, inclined to explore.

Working and Learning Outside the School

Many teachers in TLC schools have increased the number of field trips, located off-campus resources to complement what students study in classroom, or added real-world relevance to in-school student work. By expanding the horizons of student learning, teachers and schools can establish new relationships within the local community. The force of change in this strategic action lies in the capacity of teachers to forge pedagogical partnerships with parents, interested citizens, business, social agencies, and other educational organizations.

Students are on assignment in various locations, including museums (Cranwood), senior citizen facilities (Cranwood, Miami East North), and numerous businesses, industries, and community agencies (Taft, Franklin Heights, Cranwood, Federal Hocking). Box 9 illustrates the web of community programming developing at Cranwood. These activities outside the school are noteworthy for their service-oriented, extended (not one-shot visits), and thematic (often connected to a unit of study in the classroom) approach to learning.

In the growing number of "out-of-school" experiences, students can be both the objects and the subjects of service. For example, in some TLC schools, the immediate or anticipated welfare of students expands the rationale and scope of certain linkages to local resources. Among the many coordinated service initiatives at Dawson-Bryant, a number involve helping parents support the intellectual and social development of their children in the home. (These are described more fully in Chapter Five.) Most of the partnerships at Taft are designed to increase the probability that students will stay in programs which prepare them for the work force. Here, the partners recognize that the lives of students both inside and outside the school have to change. Students are the benefactors of this affiliated service.

There is an element of mutual benefit in most service-oriented work, where schools and their community partners determine how to work together so that the interests of both parties are met. The intergenerational associations at Cranwood (See the summary of *Magic Friends* in Box 9) and Miami East North unite students and senior citizens through projects that best exemplify this reciprocal intent.

Box 9

Community Programming at Cranwood

The following accounts of three community initiatives summarize what the program is about, what students provide (Service), which subject areas and/or skills are emphasized (Learning), what kind of assessment strategies are possible (Assessment), and which organizations are involved (Players).

MAGIC FRIENDS (Grades two/three): This intergenerational program links senior citizens and students, creating bi-monthly or monthly art projects over a four-month period.

- Service: Students help seniors create their own piece of art guided by a local artist. Students help seniors by visiting them and keeping them company.
- Learning: Art, science, mathematics, language arts objectives are connected to the classroom. Students may write journals to add to their portfolios.
- Assessment: Journals, traditional testing, portfolios.
- Players: Maple Care (50 students); Maple Heights Senior Center (50 students); Paramount Care (50 students); Garfield Heights local seniors (tentative — 25-35 students).

THE MENTOR PROGRAM (Grades three/four): Students and business partners meet one day a week for two hours a day, six to eight weeks consecutively. Students are paired with the same mentor each week. Students keep a journal of the experience. Students travel to the local business.

- Service: Students help their mentor with daily duties on the job.
- Learning: Students connect objectives in science, math, citizenship, language arts.
- Assessment: Proficiency testing, journals, presentation of projects, speeches (The program ends with a large evening celebration).
- Players: Pioneer Standard Electronics (30 students); Progressive Insurance (25 students); Landscapers Wholesale, Western Waterproofing, Ohio State Highway Patrol, Garfield Heights Law Department, Garfield Heights Fire Department; Cuyahoga County Libraries, Otis Elevator (one or two students each).

APPRENTICE PROGRAM (Grades three/four): This unique program allows students to observe how a museum works behind the scenes. Students visit the museum for six to eight weeks, spending one full day per week at the museum. Museum staff act as mentors for two hours of the day. Students meet, each lunch and discuss their department, connections to other departments, and problems/solutions to real issues. The museum floor is turned into the classroom. Students keep a journal of the experience.

Box 9 (continued)

- Service: Students help their museum mentor with daily job requirements.
- Learning: Students attain a sense of connectiveness, practice cooperative working skills, initiate and implement projects, and make connections across the curriculum.
- Assessment: Observation, project creation and presentation, proficiency test, journal reflection, portfolio.

Players: The Health Museum of Cleveland (30 students); The Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum (tentative 10 students).

(Peck with Harry, Trebec and Veccia, 1999)

Fourth graders at Miami East North meet with senior citizens at a nearby manor to develop a history of the county through the memories of their new "grandparents." They plan to display this oral history on a webpage.

On occasion, service starts more from a search for what students can do for the community. At Reynoldsburg, many students in their junior year take a thesis (history) course, one section of which is for students who want to do a "Thesis in Community Action project." Students choose topics which allow them to study about a local need, identify something they can do to respond to the problem, and report the results of their efforts to a panel with some experience in this area. To date, students have completed such projects as organizing an arts and crafts program at a homeless childcare facility, arranging outdoor education for the school's multiple handicapped students, lobbying to change the city curfew for teenagers, working on the school district's levy campaign committee, and directing a play for mentally handicapped students. Serving to learn becomes intertwined with learning to serve.

In the partnerships described above — and indeed, as part of many reforms in the TLC schools — outsiders, especially parents, have a more prominent teaching role. When inside the schools, parents can act as coaches (Brentmoor) or designers of instruction. For example, the Families Talking Math group at Lomond assists in the preparation of problems and manipulative materials. Parents, secretaries and custodians also teach family lessons (Miami East North). Parents, staff and community representatives participate in the assessment of student work (Reynoldsburg, Franklin Heights, Federal Hocking, Galion), often as part of cross-disciplinary learning. Wherever students spend time away from the school, they learn "on the job" through tasks that are sometimes jointly designed by the personnel at the site and their own teachers (some of the museum activities experienced by Cranwood students have been cooperatively developed by the teachers and community broker at Cranwood and the museum staff). In their work both inside and outside the school, outsiders have become insiders in the pedagogical process.

With this strategic action, change comes not only from widening the realms of learning but also from increasing the number of people outside the school involved in some aspect of teaching. It is not just about having more hands, heads and hearts to respond to the needs of a diverse student population. The inclusion of more people in the teaching act deprivatizes teaching, as when teachers work more closely with colleagues). It also enables others to see how teachers interact effectively with students and, as a result, enriches the discourse on how to improve the learning experience for all students. Rather than diminish the contribution of teachers, increasing the band of those involved in teaching enhances and further differentiates the unique and lead role teachers can play. In more partnered forms of instruction, teachers become teaching educators providing access to and counsel for approaches previously reserved for them alone. As their new teaching associates develop, they can better make possible the kind of learning teachers desire for their students. Recasting the relationships between teachers and these outsiders is a critical component in any plan to transform the learning of students through experiences outside schools.

Enhancing Classroom Change

In reconstructing the nature of teachers' work in and on behalf of the classroom, the challenge is to determine how best to sustain the focus of their actions on classroom change. As the above strategic actions demonstrate, this challenge is primarily about ensuring that the work of teachers both inside and outside the classroom is concentrated on the development of their classroom practices, with a particular emphasis on their relationship with students. While this is an obvious priority to many and espoused by most, maintaining the focus on improving student–teacher interactions is not always easy to do.

The classroom-based strategic actions (relating the work of students and reorienting the practice of teaching) by definition are complementary change tactics designed to alter teacher–student interactions. When strategic actions are no longer based in the classroom — as with creating conditions to enable and stimulate innovation, developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences, and working and learning outside the school — the approach to change can become disconnected from classroom life. For example, in creating conditions and developing units for cross-disciplinary study, teachers can get immersed in the structural and substantive issues surrounding collegial work. And when this collegial activity is further extended through affiliations with organizations outside the school, teachers can get caught up in the politics of institutional partnerships. For most teachers, then, much of their work outside classrooms (e.g., in cooperative planning, grade-level teams, community projects) is relatively new and novel, requires considerable time to appreciate and master and leads to further involvement in school-level decision making. These changes are demanding in their own right, and they can quickly overwhelm any meaningful efforts by teachers to ensure close, reciprocal links to changes in their classroom practice.

To avoid a possible drift away from their core commitment to classroom change, teachers in the TLC schools repeatedly examine how the three strategic actions outside the classroom relate to their initiatives within the two strategic actions inside the classroom. As they redesign their work outside the classroom, then, teachers keep the implications of these changes for their students firmly within their sights. They consider many dimensions of their students' experiences. The most salient ones we summarize and briefly discuss through the following questions:

- What should students do?
- Under what circumstances should students learn?
- With whom should students interact? How should they relate to others?
- How should students participate in classroom change?

These more student-centered probes compel teachers to evaluate how strategic actions targeted at their work outside classrooms should also affect what happens with students.

For example, the decision by some schools to organize grade-level teams, to relocate the teachers on the teams to a common area with adjoining classrooms, to provide the teams with a regular planning time, and to lengthen and block (2-4) periods so that the teams can determine their own schedule has often resulted in a better alignment of courses and topics, a more consistent approach to discipline, and a more efficient use of time. Here, changing the working arrangements of teachers outside the classrooms (e.g., on teams that have greater control over decisions previously managed by school administrators) also improves their capacity to overcome previous problems of space, schedule or misbehavior in the classroom. While students no doubt benefit from these changes, the focus is primarily on the teachers, altering those conditions which inhibit certain aspects of their work inside and outside the classroom. Some teams have gone further once the questions about students come more into the foreground.

With students more in view, teams tend to dwell on what students should do, a preoccupation that invariably involves some deliberation about the circumstances that should frame student learning, the social character that should undergird their work, or the degree to which students should shape the change process. Lengthening or blocking periods, then, provides the kind of flexibility and concentration of time necessary for more in-depth (e.g., projects), interactive (e.g., small groups), and experiential (e.g., use of manipulatives) forms of learning. Working with the same group of teachers (team) and in a cohort of students adds a level of familiarity to the classroom that is conducive to more intensive dialogue and critique (e.g., peer tutoring and assessment). Including teachers with different disciplinary interests on the same team opens up a search for how students can combine the concepts and processes from each discipline to engage with local problems of global significance. And with control over the use of time, a better grasp of their students' lives, a disposition to interrelate disciplines, and a desire for more relevant experiences, teams eventually consider ways to include more people (e.g., parents, business personnel) and more places (e.g., museum, senior citizens' manor) in the development of students.

By delving into what students should do, teams discover that the experiences of students are both results of and influences on changes in the nature of teachers' work. As they better understand this interdependence, teams are more willing and able to push innovation towards more transformative practices both inside and outside the classroom.

The effective application of strategic actions does ensure that the work of the TLC teachers both inside and outside the classroom concentrates on the development of their practice. As their capacity to influence their initiatives evolves, so does the nature of their interactions with students. Students are clearly important to those prompting and sustaining these changes, and students gain from these actions. In our view, it is still possible to differentiate another plane, one where teachers use the above four student-centered questions to position the students at the heart of the enterprise with greater intensity. The following two professional-learning snapshots adapt and extend strategic actions from some of the TLC schools to illustrate how the persistent consideration of these four student-centered questions can further enhance classroom change.

Monitoring Student and Teacher Performance

At Lomond, as part of their ongoing exploration of constructivist teaching in mathematics, many teachers keep a record of how students make sense of various performance tasks. The teacher includes reflections about the instruction in terms of objectives, summary/observations of the lesson, beginning steps, and next focus. Just as students maintain a portfolio of their responses to performance tasks, teachers also maintain a journal-like narrative of their instructional development. The running account of both student solutions to similar or identical tasks and instructional moves and modifications is a valuable resource for any subsequent redesign of lessons and assessment strategies.

Outside the classroom, teachers informally swap stories about how students construe area within and across grades and about the results of alternative instructional approaches. They visit each others' classrooms to observe those variations in practice and periodically meet during and after the school day to analyze and discuss how students interpret a mathematical concept with particular tasks or under certain circumstances. On a less frequent basis, but at least yearly, teachers review the performance tasks in greater depth to determine if any revisions are necessary and to continue their development of a model for constructivist teaching.

In this professional-learning snapshot, elements of four strategic actions intersect. The primary interest is classroom-based, especially in redesigning the work of students in mathematics. In documenting their instructional biography as constructivist teachers, they also inquire into and experiment with approaches that best support the meaning-making skills of their students (reorienting the practice of teaching). In the corridors, some reorganization of time occurs so that teachers can observe, compare, and build on each other's practices (creating conditions to enable and stimulate innovation). While the change itself (constructivist teaching) places considerable importance on student voice, teachers can still push the boundaries of classroom change further with student-centered probes.

What students should do is very much based on the central role their perspectives play in changing their classroom experience, which is related to Question 4. How should students participate in classroom change? How students recall and recount what they do guides what teachers have them do. Teachers no longer take for granted that what they teach is congruent with what students learn. Mathematical dialogues permit an ongoing expression and negotiation of meaning with colleagues and with students, which, in turn, is related to Question 3. How should students relate to others? The act of getting closer to the mathematical understanding of students is simultaneously an act of teaching and teacher development.

Critical Friends Groups

An increasing number of Reynoldsburg teachers are involved in Critical Friends Groups (CFGs), a professional-development strategy intended to improve student performance through self-directed and collegially supported changes in classroom practices. Each CFG has five to 10 teachers from different disciplines or grade levels and with varying years of experience (for beginning teachers or teachers new to the school, a CFG is a form of induction). CFGs meet regularly more than once a month for at least two hours in total, sometimes during the school day; many CFG teachers at Reynoldsburg teach one period less so they can meet at a time scheduled for this purpose. The meetings are an opportunity for teachers to discuss a project they each have designed to further their capacity to work effectively with students. The projects may include revising an existing course or developing a new course,conducting a trial of a new teaching model, adapting instruction for students with special needs, designing interdisciplinary studies, training students as peer tutors, or coaching parents and other community members in assessing student presentations. Some of the discussion is devoted to teachers reporting on the documentation of their projects. Ongoing inquiry and a portfolio of materials, data, and reflections generated by the inquiry are two of the CFG requirements. Colleagues offer critical but friendly feedback for each project, probing assumptions, puzzling over identified problems, speculating about alternative approaches to designing the project or to documenting the project (e.g., through journals, peer or videotaped observations), and comparing the ideas and practices with other initiatives in the group and school. In addition, the CFG records its own progress through a journal of its dialogue, a periodic critique of its development as a group, and a review of the projects in relation to the wider school change agenda.

From time to time, two or more CFGs come together to share their project stories or to engage other interested parties (e.g., parents, community representatives, CFGs in other schools) in the activities, insights and possible applications revealed through their change efforts. The personal development of individual teachers then becomes embedded in and enriched by connections with a network of colleagues and other stakeholders committed to classroom change. In addition, CFGs work with an in-house coach to develop a framework for understanding professional learning and a rubric to guide and assess the CFG process and its capacity to stimulate growth.

In this professional snapshot, the strategic actions are more explicit about those changes in teachers' work outside the classroom. Teachers are left to themselves to determine how to redefine the work of students and to reorient their teaching practices. Making time available in the day to meet with colleagues to discuss professional-growth plans significantly alters the conditions that govern how they usually spend their day. The inquiry-based deliberations among colleagues from different classrooms, grades, or disciplines and occasionally with others outside the school are tactics associated with most of the three strategic actions outside the classroom. As was shown in the previous snapshot, concentrating on the implications of the CFG process for students strengthens the classroom change intent.

Many of the defining characteristics of Critical Friends Groups — interrelating individual and group activities, inquiry-based learning, use of portfolios, rubrics and exhibitions, and interaction across disciplines and settings — are similar to the classroom-based changes teachers espouse and seek. More directly, the CFG dialogues effectively deprivatize practice, making teachers' classroom practices and the changes they make to these practices the topic for continuous review and recommendation. The four student-centered questions (and their derivatives) become more prominent as teachers become more comfortable with each other and appreciate the supportive spirit in what may at first seem like scrutiny and criticism. Then they can jointly explore beneath the surface of lesson plans, best-foot-forward portrayals, or general accounts and examine the dynamic world of each other's classrooms and the diverse experiences of students. Once the discourse has reached closer to the pulse of classroom life, the CFG can begin to provoke more significant changes.

Once we venture into the realm of professional learning (as we have with the two examples above), we have intruded into some of the areas examined more fully in the next chapter. This reveals how difficult it can be to separate teachers' work in and on behalf of the classroom from teachers' work in the corridors and beyond. Little can significantly change without connecting the changes teachers seek in their interactions with students with the changes they seek in the ways they work with colleagues and other stakeholders. While changes in the classroom can be even further enhanced through classroom-centered strategic actions that deeply probe what students should experience (in one or more of the four student-centered questions listed above), they have little chance of sustained or bold reform without a corresponding level of change in the professional lives of teachers in the corridors and as part of other communities.

Chapter Four

Reconstructing Teachers' Work: In the Corridors

One key lesson from the Transforming Learning Communities case studies is that significant changes in teaching and learning in the classroom are unlikely to occur without significant changes in the organization and work of teachers and other key stakeholders in the corridors and as part of other communities. Changes in the corridors are often characterized as restructuring, and changes in teacher relationships with parents and external agencies in the community are often characterized as partnerships; either kind of change can enhance the capacity of school personnel to carry out external reforms in curriculum, teaching, and learning, as well as their capacity to generate and implement reforms grounded in locally determined needs. While much of what teachers do in the corridors and with other communities is related to their work with students in the classroom, these environments constitute distinct contexts for professional work with their own organizational structures, routines, and norms. This chapter focuses on change in the professional work of teachers in the corridors. In Chapter Five, we explore school-reform-oriented changes in the interaction of teachers with parents and others in the local community.

In this chapter, we explore three strategic actions associated with reconstructing teachers' work in the corridors in the process of school reform: (1) building capacity for joint work; (2) extending collegial development; and (3) expanding shared responsibility. Reconstructing teachers' work outside the classroom in the context of school reform tends to focus on three broad domains: teachers' working relationships, teacher learning, and participation in decision making. When combined with changes in the classroom, these changes in the corridors and beyond provide a more holistic picture of what it means to be a teacher in a transforming learning community.

Transforming Stories of Teacher Work Lives

When schools embark on journeys of school improvement that involve teachers in altered patterns of work outside the classroom, stories begin to evolve that reflect the individual and collective histories

of teacher work in these new contexts. These new histories in part mirror the substance of what teachers do in these altered work settings and in part reflect the dynamic processes of learning to work in these out-of-classroom contexts over time. Teachers collaborating on teaching teams, for example, may divide their time between talking about jointly developed integrated units and talking about the progress and behavior of individual students; this is the substance of teaming. Working on teams, however, may require teachers to learn new ways of interacting with colleagues and to renegotiate use of team time in response to such factors as interpersonal relations within the team, competing priorities, and turnover in membership; this is the process of learning to team. Here we explore strategic actions in the TLC schools concerning changes in teachers' work in the corridors and how that work evolves as a sustaining feature of the teaching profession in self-renewing schools.

Building Capacity for Joint Work

The potential for sustained teacher development and school improvement depends in large measure on teachers working jointly in schools with colleagues and other partners in education. Individual teacher professionalism is out. Interactive teacher professionalism is in. Here we are talking about more than the informal collaboration among teachers — swapping stories, exchanging tips, sharing resources — that occurs in the staff room, during shared supervisory duties, in fleeting moments before or after school, and even in staff meetings. And we are talking about more than temporary work groups convened to accomplish a specific professional-development or school-improvement-related task. We are talking about joint work for professional growth and school development as a habitual feature of the teaching profession in today's schools. In order for this to occur, teachers need the opportunity, resources, and authority to engage in meaningful collaboration in schools. The strategic action we call "building capacity for joint work" refers to the creation of time, personnel arrangments, space, purpose, and tools for teachers to engage in collaborative work for continuous improvement in schools. Principals play an important role in facilitating the enactment of these kinds of changes in the corridors, though as emphasized under the discussion of the strategic action expanding shared responsibility," they do so through collegial decision making with teachers.

Whether the emphasis is on teachers teaching less in isolation, on teachers supporting one anothers' professional learning, or on teacher participation in school decision making, one of the key challenges for school-based reform is to create more or differently arranged time for collective engagement in these activities. A variety of structural changes have been introduced in the TLC schools to create time for teachers to interact, to learn, and to make decisions about matters affecting teaching and learning. Common tactics include reducing the number of periods and students taught per day, adding planning periods, scheduling periodic early release days, using substitute teachers, and holding retreats. How

time is structured not only increases the chances that teachers will work together, but also has an effect on which teachers might collaborate with one another. Several of the TLC schools have found ways to free up common blocks of times for all teachers or have assigned specific time slots for particular collaborative work groups. The following list illustrates the variety of ways in which TLC school faculties have structured time for joint work in their regular workdays.

Planning Tactics

All Galion and East Muskingum teachers are teamed by grade level. Each grade-level team has a daily joint planning period, plus personal planning time. Non-academic and resource teachers have shared planning periods, as well. Shared planning times are used for weekly team conferences with the principal at East Muskingum.

Brentmoor visual arts, physical education, and music teachers have a Fine Arts block. This frees up teachers by grade level to meet together while their students are with the Arts teachers.

At Miami East North, substitute teachers are used twice a month to free up teachers by division (kindergarten–grade two, grades three and four) for half days for grade-level and/or division-level planning or professional development.

Each grade level at Talawanda is organized into two tribes of students and academic subject teacher teams. The daily schedule provides for both team planning time and individual teacher planning time, though different tribes from the same grade level do not meet at the same time. Weekly early release time is scheduled on Wednesdays for school committee and department meetings, staff meetings, or inservice activities.

Teaching teams at Reynoldsburg (four Freshman teams, one Sophomore) teach four periods a day and use their fifth period for team meeting time. Team meetings are scheduled at different times in the day. The schedule also provides individual planning time for those not on teams and a common time for all teachers (the final period of the day) to conference with students, meet on school-improvement committees, or engage in professional-development activities.

At Franklin Heights, daily team planning time is built into the timetable for each of the integrated Tech/Prep and College/Prep (WOW) teaching teams. Teachers not on teams, but who choose to voluntarily team in dyads and triads, are also allocated time for joint planning in their daily schedules.

Taft teachers are organized in grade-level teaching teams. The number of teams per grade decreases from grade nine to 12. The final period of the the day (45 min) is reserved for teaching-team meetings three days a week. Teams meet separately, not in grade-level clusters. Every other Wednesday, the time is used for site-based committee work.

Federal Hocking teachers have daily individual planning time and a shared planning time. Courses and students are double-blocked for teachers who choose to team up for interdisciplinary work (e.g., English + American history, mathematics + science). Those teachers are assigned to the same shared planning time groups to enable joint curriculum planning. Shared-planning-times are also used for bi-monthly "Friday Planning Meetings" with the principal.

It is important to emphasize that these schools have discovered ways to create time for joint professional work without diminishing the amount of instructional time for students. In fact, a common problem is that when teachers find themselves with additional time in the workday for more concentrated collegial work, they have the urge to take advantage of this time for even more contact with students, individually or in small groups, for remediation, consultation on assignments, assessment, and counseling.

To ensure some degree of joint work, it is often necessary to combine restructured time with strategies that encourage teachers to participate in collaborative work groups, such as teaching teams, professional-learning groups, and school-improvement committees. Here we take a closer look at teaming. We explore professional-learning groups and school-improvement committees in the sections, "Extending Collegial Development" and under "Expanding Shared Responsibility." in this chapter.

In the preceding chapter (see section "Creating Conditions to Enable and Stimulate Innovation"), we alluded to the variety of teaming arrangements found in TLC schools, including: grade-level teams that combine teachers of different subject areas who share a common group of students; non-academic subject (visual arts, music, physical education) and/or resource teacher teams; multi-age teams that take on responsibility for teaching cross-graded student cohorts; and informal teaming among like-minded teachers. In middle schools, interdisciplinary teaching teams with common daily planning periods are typically schoolwide, involving all academic subject teachers in groups of four to five. Interdisciplinary teaming arrangements are also found in the TLC high schools, though team participation is as likely to be by choice as by mandate. As a result, while some teachers work on teams, others teach on their own. Formal teaming arrangements are less common among the TLC elementary schools. Some Cranwood teachers voluntarily partner in multi-age classroom settings. A Fine Arts team at Brentmoor coordinates the implementation of integrated arts units with academic subject teachers. All teachers at Miami East North join in planning and implementing a monthly values-education program for cross-graded groups of children.

Structural adjustments affecting time and personnel arrangements are key elements in building the capacity for joint work on school reform. New arrangements of space can also come into play. In part, this has to do with the tradition of placing teachers in classrooms close to other teachers with whom they might be inclined to collaborate. Proximity increases the likelihood of teacher collaboration and

can have unexpected consequences. After teaching teams were placed in neighboring classrooms, the faculty at Galion discovered that it was possible to reduce transition times between classes by three minutes. This, coupled with a rescheduling of lunch and counseling periods, enabled them to create an additional period during the day exclusively for team meetings.

Another strategic use of space employed in a few TLC schools is the common work area, where teachers can gather and interact informally as time permits. In the second year of her appointment, Cranwood's lead teacher for staff development converted a storeroom, which had been doubling as a private office space for her predecessor, into a resource room complete with couch and coffee pot for teachers to explore teaching materials, gather and talk, share stories and plan, or just relax. The space created an informal context for teacher interaction and for the lead teacher to connect with teachers individually to support their use of different teaching methods. In another case, after three years of double-blocking and teaming in a "Humanities Block," Federal Hocking English and social sciences teachers banded together to create a Humanities Resource Room, stocked with resources to support their interdisciplinary work as teachers and the students' work as learners.

Another element of building capacity for joint work is to ensure that teachers working together have a clear sense of significant purpose. One obvious example is the assignment of specific cohorts of students to teams of teachers, who are then empowered with the flexibility to alter grouping and scheduling arrangements, and to develop more integrated teaching and learning experiences. Another is school-improvement committees charged with planning, facilitating, and monitoring schoolwide activities related to priorities for school change. A third is teacher study groups set up to investigate specific issues of teaching and learning practices. Agreements among teachers across grade levels, departments, and teaching teams to develop and implement schoolwide thematic units provide another focus for joint work. A Theme and Text Committee at Brentmoor, for example, selects schoolwide themes annually, which then become foci for teacher collaboration at the grade level and with the Fine Arts Integration Team. Science department teachers at Talawanda initiated and coordinated schoolwide interdisciplinary thematic units over a period of years. The capacity for joint work is enhanced when teachers have a clear focus for work during this shared time.

Having a clear sense of purpose is one thing. Acquiring the skills to work effectively together toward that purpose is another. The provision of group process training and tools is another element of building capacity for joint work encountered in some of the TLC school-improvement stories. Teachers and principals from several of the schools had positive recollections of team building and group process training episodes during the early days of working on teams. Several skills like seeking and respecting alternative views, learning to disagree in agreeable ways, and working towards consensus had long-term effects on the potential for productive collaborative work. In a few schools, teachers adopted specific tools to aid in the completion of group tasks. At Miami East North, for example, cadres of teachers, support staff, and parents are created around specific foci for change identified during a series

of "taking-stock" surveys of different stakeholder groups (e.g., teachers, parents, students). Each cadre uses a standard inquiry process developed by the Accelerated Schools network to investigate the issues and propose solutions to the problems underlying those issues. At Franklin Heights, cross-disciplinary teaching teams have a variety of procedures to guide them in the collaborative development of integrated units (e.g., see Boxes 7 and 8 in Chapter Three). Teachers participating in Critical Friends Groups at Reynoldsburg and at Federal Hocking are trained to use specific questioning and feedback tactics in order to facilitate peer dialogue and coaching as teachers support each other's professional learning.

Once teacher collaboration takes hold, it acquires a life of its own, subject to the evolutionary dynamics of changing priorities and personnel turnover. The capacity for joint work is not something that, once built, necessarily remains forever. It has to be consciously monitored and renewed by the teachers and administrators involved. The establishment of teaching teams with common planning times, for example, increases the potential for teacher collaboration. The degree to which that potential is enacted and sustained over time, however, represents an ongoing challenge for teachers working in teams. Time is an organizational resource that can be used for multiple purposes. A common phenomenon observed in middle and high schools with formal cross-disciplinary team structures is a tension within the teams between the desire to plan interdisciplinary learning experiences and to share expertise, and the urgency of attending to individual student needs for academic, social-emotional, or behavioral support. A further challenge for sustaining meaningful collaboration in teams occurs when team time gets co-opted by attention to routine administrative and information concerns in the building. At Galion, one teaching team responded to this tension by allocating specific days of the week for different purposes: Monday — curriculum planning; Tuesday — at-risk student intervention; Wednesday — communicating with parents; Thursday — professional sharing; and Friday — administrative matters. At Taft, the final period of the day is set aside for teamwork three days a week. Alternate Wednesdays are reserved for site-based committee work. At Federal Hocking, the timetable places all teachers in one of three common planning blocks. Every other week, all teachers within each common planning block meet as a group with the principal for Friday Planning Meetings, in which they discuss important issues related to the school's vision and its implementation, or engage in professional sharing about instructional innovations. Thus, a helpful solution to the issue of competing priorities for the use of collaborative work time is to create a regular schedule that strikes a balance between the different needs for and potential uses of group work. In the absence of mechanisms for socializing incoming teachers into the purposes, norms, and practices of teaming, personnel turnover can erode the sense of interdependence and the intensity of collaborative activity among established teams. Teachers in some of the TLC schools have recognized this issue and have developed strategies to induct new teachers into the culture of their schools and teams (see next section, "Extending Collegial Development").

Increased collaboration among teachers is a common focus of change in teachers' working relationships across the TLC schools. We have associated this change with a strategic action called "building capacity for joint work," which encompasses several specific strategies: restructuring time to enable

joint work, organizing collaborative work groups, ensuring that groups have a clear sense of purpose, arranging space to facilitate group work, providing training and tools to assist with group process and task completion, and attending to the dynamics and renewal of teamwork over time. When these elements come together, they become a powerful strategic approach to building capacity for joint work in the process of school reform.

Extending Collegial Development

Efforts to develop norms and practices of ongoing professional learning are characteristic of school reform initiatives in the TLC cases. Among these efforts, one can discern a variety of overlapping change strategies. Which strategies are emphasized may vary over time and for different purposes. We consider these specific strategies as different manifestations of an overall strategic action, which we call "extending collegial development." One sense of this strategic action is mentioned in the preceding section, namely, that teachers have to develop as colleagues. In a second sense, teachers increasingly turn to colleagues as a primary source for professional learning. Teachers need, then, to learn to work together at the same time they are learning by working together. Here we discuss strategies through which teachers become partners in learning.

Traditionally, teachers' inservice professional development has been addressed as an individual activity associated with each teacher's personal professional interests and career goals. It typically takes place outside the school under the tutelage of experts who may have little or no concrete connections to the teacher's home school. It often occurs through the kind of hit-and-run inservice activity typified by the ubiquitous one-shot workshop. The change strategies discussed below highlight key aspects of change in the nature and form of teacher learning in and beyond the corridors identified in the TLC schools. Two common features of all these strategies are that professional learning occurs as a joint activity with colleagues from the school, and that professional learning is grounded in school-based priorities and concerns.

Three strategies are encompassed within the strategic action of extending school-based collegial development: (1) embedding collegial development in the workplace; (2) learning together, teaching one another, and supporting each other's learning; and (3) using systematic collaborative inquiry to deepen understanding and expertise. It is at the intersection of these three strategies that one encounters the most powerful collegial-development experiences in the TLC schools. The TLC cases suggest that in the process of becoming a transforming learning community, teachers' professional learning activities become increasingly embedded in the workplace, increasingly in partnership with other colleagues, and increasingly oriented towards exploration and improvement of practices.

In the following paragraphs, we survey the range of change in teachers' professional learning experiences in the TLC schools, while pausing to highlight examples of innovation that progressively blend the three dimensions of this strategic action. We begin by illustrating what it means to embed collegial development in the workplace. Then we take up the learning and collaborative inquiry dimensions of collegial development in the TLC schools.

Embedding Collegial Development in the Workplace

Collegial development in the TLC schools can be found embedded in the workplace. By that we mean that professional learning is oriented towards addressing shared goals and concerns, that control over professional-development purposes and funds is largely determined by teachers, and that much of professional learning is contextually situated in location, time, and fit with teachers' practical realities.

Across the TLC schools, substantial teacher control over the use of professional-development resources (funds, time) is an archetypal pattern. Consensus on school goals as a basis for decision making about the use of those resources is another key feature of that pattern. One finds little evidence of school administrators or committees of teachers who simply disburse professional-development funds in response to individual teacher requests and interests (apparently a common practice in the past in some of these schools). At some schools, such as Taft and Federal Hocking, teacher-led steering committees screen and approve requests for grant-related professional development activities from teaching teams and/or individual teachers. School goals, Venture Capital indicators, and other such school-wide criteria figure prominently in the decision making. At other schools, such as Talawanda and East Muskingum, school-improvement committees for distinct initiatives are allocated portions of grant funds, and they are empowered to use those monies at their discretion for professional activities related to their mandate. Teacher control over funding for professional activities has contributed to an increased sense of ownership and commitment among teachers to school-improvement initiatives.

The primary sense of workplace embeddedness of collegial-development activity arises from its contextually situated location and relevance. This heightens the perceived practicality of professional learning for teachers, because it provides greater opportunity for teachers to tailor the relevance of that learning to the particular conditions of their own workplace. Much of this activity occurs at the times created during the day or week for team planning and other collaborative group work (see preceding section, "Building Capacity for Joint Work"). Other collegial-development activities associated with the TLC schools have drawn teachers off campus — sending delegations to training centers, conferences, school retreats, visits to other schools, and summer inservice sessions. While these activities occur off-site, because they tend to involve groups of teachers or even entire staffs, in a sense the school travels with the teachers, serving as a reference point for adapting those experiences to school goals and needs.

The key point of embedding collegial development in the workplace is to make professional learning more school-based. By situating it in the workplace, the school has to make time and space for pro-

fessional learning, and has to include teachers in defining its evolving purposes and forms. Once mutual commitment to school-based professional development develops, even going away to workshops and conferences becomes an embedded experience.

Teachers Learning Together

Extending collegial development involves teachers learning together, teaching one another, and supporting each other's learning as a continuous activity focused on school and classroom improvement. Across the TLC schools, professional learning has shifted from an individual experience driven by personal interests and career motives to a collective experience oriented to common professional learning goals in a context of schoolwide reform. In myriad ways, teachers can be seen learning together, as illustrated in the examples that follow.

Some forms of professional-development activity in the TLC schools have a familiar ring — attending conferences, taking courses, visiting other schools, inservice training. When listening to teachers from these schools, however, one becomes conscious of a change in how these traditional forms of professional learning play out in teachers' lives. The key element of this change is the added dimension of learning together for a common purpose, as opposed to learning on one's own for individual reasons (in transforming learning communities, individual and collective purposes increasingly meld together). Thus going to conferences is nothing new. But securing release time and district approval for the entire faculty and some support staff from Miami East North to attend an Accelerated Schools Conference in St. Louis was not a common experience. Nor was sending about 15 teachers from Federal Hocking in each of two years to national Coalition of Essential Schools Forums. With all the certification and licensure requirements that abound, taking courses for university and professional-development credits is old hat. But having groups of faculty from Taft attend the same courses on teaming and on cooperative learning at the district staff-development center was not the norm. Nor was the participation of a group of Federal Hocking teachers in the same year-long cooperative-learning course at Ohio University.

Teachers rarely get the opportunity to visit other schools. Even rarer is the chance to do so with a group of colleagues (and in some cases parents and students) in search of promising practices and organizational structures that relate to their school's agenda for change. School team visits to model schools figure prominently in the change histories of most of the TLC schools, and some have become model schools to visit. For many teachers, getting inservice training means little more than attending introductory workshops and presentations on new policies or programs outside the school. Typically, inservice training in the TLC schools: a) involves groups of faculty (if not all); b) is more school-based (in the sense described as embedded in the workplace); c) is longer term (extending over a year or two); and d) involves a deliberate mix of presentations, workshops, problem-solving sessions, and in-class coaching by external consultants and/or more experienced peers.

In transforming learning communities, principals often act as colleagues in teachers' professional learning rather than restricting themselves to more traditional managerial roles as facilitators, directors, or evaluators of that learning. This is manifested in many ways in the TLC schools, such as visiting model schools with teacher teams, participating in inservice training focused on the use of new programs and teaching methods, sitting with teacher study groups, finding and sharing professional literature, and taking on teaching responsibilities in order to develop their own understanding and expertise in the use of innovative practices in the classroom and corridors (e.g., working on a teaching team).

When learning together is combined with teaching one another and supporting each other's learning, teachers come to regard their own and their colleague's classroom experiences and expertise as valuable sources of professional knowledge to be actively sought and shared. From a strategic standpoint, developing school-based peer leadership for collegial development has powerful long-term benefits, in part because it broadens the range of expertise and support for professional learning available to teachers on an ongoing basis, and in part because it enhances the potential for sustained learning about particular areas of knowledge building. Teachers are released from depending on intermittent contact with external sources of knowledge or their personal invention for professional growth.

Six peer teaching and support strategies stand out across the TLC schools: (1) group investigations/presentations, (2) peer demonstrations/modeling, (3) turnkey training/mentoring, (4) peer coaching and support, (5) formal instructional leadership roles, and (6) induction/mentoring of teachers new to the school. The following snapshots illustrate each of these strategies:

Teaching and Support Strategies

Group investigations/presentations	During the first two years of school reform at Federal Hocking, teachers self-organized into eight Research-in-Action group investigation teams. Teams included parent and student representatives. Each team investigated a topic identified from initial needs assessments as potential directions for change — Multiple Intelligences, Interdisciplinary Teaching, Graduation by Exhibition, Active Learning, Ability Grouping, Long Periods, Preparation for Life, and Habits of Mind. As teams completed their investigations, they shared findings in a newsletter and made presentations to their colleagues.
Demonstrations/modeling	Faculty at East Muskingum devoted a schoolwide staff meeting to the topic of instructional strategies. In carousel fashion, eight teachers working in pairs demonstrated the instructional strategies they had been experimenting with in their own classrooms. All staff members rotated among the pairs sharing until everyone had experienced all of the strategies.

Turnkey training/mentoring	Ten Dawson-Bryant teachers attended a training session in the use of a conflict-resolution program associated with Success for All at Johns Hopkins University. These teachers returned and taught the rest of the teachers how to implement the program. Selected teachers from Brentmoor were trained at the National Paideia Center in the Paideia instructional model of didactic teaching, coaching, and Socratic seminars. These teachers became mentors to experienced and new teachers who did not go to North Carolina.
Peer coaching/support	Teachers at Reynoldsburg and at Federal Hocking formed Critical Friends Groups of four to five teachers who meet regularly to support one another's efforts to experiment with new practices in the classroom (see Chapter Three, the section "*Critical Friends Groups*").
Formal staff development roles	The principal and several staff members (both teachers and classified staff) at Miami East North were trained as Accelerated Schools coaches. They model and train other staff in the use of the Accelerated Schools inquiry process for school improvement. Cranwood's reform model includes a full-time lead teacher, whose job is to support teachers in implementation of instructional methods associated with multi-age teaching, as well as practices of individual teachers. The lead teacher's activities include a variety of interventions — assemblies on instructional topics, in-class demonstrations and consultations with individual teachers, visits to other schools, compilations of resource materials for teachers, and establishment of a teacher resource room.
Induction/mentoring of teachers new to the school	All new teachers to Lomond are expected to participate in a building-wide leadership team composed of teachers involved in implementing a constructivist approach to mathematics education. At Reynoldsburg, "Rookie Roundtable" sessions are organized by senior teachers for newly arrived teachers to talk about the core beliefs and practices instituted at the school. All incoming teachers are required to join Critical Friends Groups during their first couple of years with the school. At Dawson-Bryant, in-house Success for All building facilitators train substitute teachers in use of the school's SFA programs. These school-trained supply teachers become a pool for potential replacement teachers as those initially trained by SFA consultants retire or move.

While each of the peer teaching strategies illustrated above involves teachers as partners in one another's professional learning, they are not all alike in the ways teachers experience them. They vary, for example, in the degree of risk they pose to teachers' individual sense of professionalism (recall "the one-room schoolhouse" tension), and they involve varying degrees of buying into and living up to common expectations for practice (echos of "the bonding" tension). When group investigations and presentations bring teachers together as a community in pursuit of knowledge, even if one teacher earns personal recognition from peers as a resident expert on a topic, such gatherings present little threat to a teacher's sense of professional individuality. On the other hand, when teachers model their teaching to colleagues, or observe and question their colleagues' practices, they face the possibility that others will think they are making claims of superiority or rejecting the validity of alternative favored practices. Both of these possibilities violate traditional norms of egalitarianism and non-interference in one another's style of teaching. This tension becomes particularly salient when formal in-house staff-development roles are created. The experience of teachers in this kind of role in the TLC schools suggests that becoming a helping teacher (whether formally defined or not) among equal-status colleagues requires daring, time, tact, persistence, a thick skin, creativity, and administrative support. Traditional inhibitions against showing colleagues how to teach appear to relax when teachers collectively set out to learn new practices. This may help explain why turnkey training strategies create less discomfort among teachers than unsolicited demonstrations of classroom practice. Across the various peer teaching practices illustrated above, there is also wide variation in whether teachers actually take on teaching roles, or participate mainly as beneficiaries or collegial supporters of each other's learning.

These tensions are inevitable when teachers begin to act as partners in one another's learning. The good news is that teachers in many of the TLC schools have worked through these tensions to the point where peer teaching in a wide variety of forms has become expected normal practice. The caution is that achieving this state is likely to evolve over time as teachers experiment with different varieties of peer teaching and develop comfort, trust, and eventually a sense of interdependence in sharing their learning and expertise.

While not univeral across the TLC schools, principals and assistant principals in several of the schools went beyond collaborating in organizing joint professional-learning experiences, and participating in those experiences as collegial learners. Some took on instructional leadership roles in the classroom. At Lomond, for example, the principal and assistant principal actively experiment with and demonstrate constructivist teaching in mathematics in the classroom with cooperating teachers. They also participate as colleagues in meetings of a building-wide instructional design team of teachers committed to this change. At Dawson-Bryant, the principal is a trained building facilitator capable of providing in-classroom assistance to teachers implementing Success for All programs.

As norms of collegial development became institutionalized, teachers in many of the TLC schools came to see themselves as having a responsibility to socialize and induct new teachers (both beginning teachers and experienced teachers newly appointed to the school) into the use of instructional methods, decision-making processes, and other practices associated with school-reform initiatives implemented in preceding years. The examples cited in the preceding chart illustrate some of the formally organized approaches to teacher induction.

Other schools rely on more informal methods of inducting new teachers into collegial norms and practices. A third-year teacher at Talawanda, for example, recounted the dramatic change in her approach to language arts through her departmental contacts with other English teachers using a reading and writing workshop approach. An English teacher new to Federal Hocking told how the social studies teacher with whom she was paired for the Humanities block began the year by sharing integrated units developed with her predecessor, and asking her what she thought of them, what changes she might suggest, and what ideas she might have for other units. Newcomer socialization into transforming learning communities is not just about teaching practices valued in the classroom, but also about norms for collegial learning in the corridors.

One other peer teaching and support strategy deserves mention: Many teachers regard the informal development that comes through working together on teams as their most significant source of professional growth. Those teachers on teams refer less to the sharing of knowledge about educational issues and teaching practices that they might have acquired through attendance at workshops, courses, conferences, and through professional reading, and more to deepening their knowledge and appreciation of each other as professionals. Teaming provides a context through which teachers come to understand each other as teachers, not merely to be acquainted with each other as teachers.

Another dimension of professional learning enhanced through participation on teaching teams is knowledge of the learners jointly served by the team. All pupils, but particularly those at risk for one reason or another, come under the team's mutual scrutiny at one time or another. The integration of each teacher's experiences with individual students contributes to a better understanding of those students as learners and as persons than any of the teachers could acquire on his/her own. Team conversations about how to work with individual students also create a kind of ongoing comparative chatter that can prompt teachers to consider alternative ways to relate to individual students.

Collaborative Inquiry

While not as widely practiced, teachers in some TLC schools are jointly involved in using systematic and collaborative inquiry to investigate school or classroom-based issues and practices for the purpose of clarifying the need for change, or of determining the consequences of actions previously taken. In the following examples, the three strategic dimensions of collegial development intersect in the same professional-learning experiences — workplace embeddedness, teachers learning together, and teachers studying their own circumstances and practices.

Getting into the Habit of Change in Ohio Schools

Inquiry-based change is built into the cyclical school-improvement model at Miami East North. Box 10 depicts two stages in the Accelerated Schools inquiry process during the 1997/98 academic year. This inquiry process involves a rational sequence of stages for collaboratively studying the circumstances associated with potential needs for change, and for deriving plans of action out of that inquiry. At Reynoldsburg, the principal and teachers instituted a curriculum review process, in which subject groups are analyzing the alignment of work (activities, assignments) across the grades.

Box 10

The Curriculum Cadre at Miami East North

The 1997-98 Curriculum Cadre consisted of four classroom teachers, one school staff member, two parents, the district curriculum supervisor, and the school principal. The cadre met after school each week. The meetings were run by a facilitator who was chosen at each meeting. The cadre was give a list of possible areas on which to work. The list was generated from the staff brainstorming problems before the cadres were created. The cadre discussed these areas of concern and decided that examining the low proficiency scores in mathematics would be the focus. Challenge areas were hypothesized concerning possible causes of the previous year's drop in mathematics results. Possibilities included teachers not consistently using the program; the current program not correlating with the Proficiency Test; and not enough training for teachers. Each of these hypotheses were discussed, ways of testing them were examined, and a member of the cadre was enlisted to be responsible for the action plans associated with each focus of inquiry. Some ways in which the hypotheses were tested included:

- A parent survey and a teacher survey were created, and administered, and the results were compiled and discussed.
- Two teachers visited area schools that scored well on the mathematics section of the Proficiency Test. They reported on their findings.
- Articles on mathematics, specifically the mathematics program adopted by the district two years before, were read and discussed. The publisher of the mathematics series was contacted about alignment with the Proficiency Test items.
- Test scores and subscores from the Proficiency Tests were compared with those of other schools from the district.

(Poetter with Gay, Elifritz and Hofacker, 1999)

At other schools, the history of school reform has been punctuated by moments of systematic and collaborative inquiry, experimentation, and reflection on solutions to specific problems of student performance by committees or task forces of teachers and administrators. In November 1998, Taft teach-

ers met with representatives from the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative (CYC) to examine statistical data compiled by school staff about the prevalence and characteristics (e.g., age, academic performance) of over-aged grade-nine students, and to discuss new proposals for addressing the problem. Taft teachers, in partnership with the CYC, began studying and experimenting with innovative programs and teaching arrangements focused on the over-age problem in the late 1980s. The latest round of inquiry and action was sparked by recommendations arising from the school's participation in a North Central Accreditation Commission evaluation process. At Dawson-Bryant, a teacher-parent task force, after a year of study into the problems of underachievement, recommended adoption of a full-year school calendar. A modified-year calendar program was piloted during the 1997/98 school year. At the end of the year, teachers compiled comparison data on student performance, attendance, and discipline for the traditional and modified-year students. The principal surveyed teachers in the modified-year program to determine their views on the advantages and disadvantages of the program. Whether they employ a standardized inquiry process, as in the case of Miami East North, or whether they are simply inclined to investigate significant problems and to treat solutions as pilot projects that have to be evaluated, systematic collaborative inquiry is another form of collegial development exhibited in many of the TLC schools.

The preceding examples illustrate collegial learning through systematic inquiry at the school and program levels. In some schools, collaborative research activities extend into the classroom. At Federal Hocking, Teacher-Development Seminars illustrate collaborative inquiry through teacher study groups. The vignette in Box 11 depicts teachers meeting during regular planning time (i.e., workplace-embedded) to jointly study (i.e., learning together) the use of assessment rubrics by discussing journal articles, by sharing and critiquing each other's development efforts, and by reporting and discussing actual experiences with rubrics in the classroom (i.e., classroom-based action research). At Lomond, grant monies were used to encourage individual teacher proposals for classroom-based research targeting constructivist teaching-learning-assessment practices. A total of 18 projects were submitted and funded for materials, equipment, and release time. Daily documentation of student responses to mathematics concepts and tasks, followed by modifications in teaching strategies based on analysis of those responses, is integral to the constructivist approach to mathematics pedagogy. In effect, teaching becomes an ongoing process of action research. Cross-graded Instructional Design Teams were then set up in part as a vehicle for teachers to share the results of their personal investigations in the classroom, and in part as a strategy for encouraging teachers less deeply involved in constructivist teaching to take a deeper plunge. In both these cases, teachers are jointly studying and comparing their teaching practices in the classroom.

Box 11

Teacher-Development Seminar at Federal Hocking

Background: Four interdisciplinary groups of teachers share common planning periods. Each group meets with the principal during its shared planning time on Fridays at three-week intervals (during the Fall 1998) for a teacher-development seminar. The seminars operate as study groups in which the teachers investigate theory and practices related to selected areas of instructional practice. Each study group chooses its own focus of inquiry — assessment rubrics, cooperative learning, Socratic seminars, and project learning. The principal commenting on his role: "My role is facilitator.... My job is to get materials to people, get everybody there, keep it moving, maybe provide food.... My style is to give ideas and to link up with people who are much more knowledgable."

Observation: Friday, October 24, 1998. The principal and 10 teachers representing a variety of subjects (e.g., English, social sciences, science, Spanish, music) are crowded around a rectangular table in the small conference room adjacent to the school office. Several teachers discussed different ways of assigning marks (letter grades, percentages) from rubric-based assessments. The principal intervened: "OK, let's get back to rubrics." An English teacher distributed copies of rubrics for senior research papers, which he developed collaboratively with students the year before. He explained that they adapted the rubrics from the Ohio Proficiency Test writing rubrics and from research paper requirements used at the local College of Education. He contrasted these rubrics with another set developed by teachers from other schools, characterizing the latter as "not as good ... less student input." Other teachers asked about the standards and criteria in the rubrics, how he actually scored student papers using the rubric ("I have a checklist sheet"), how he combined scores across different dimensions of the rubrics, and whether students accepted the evaluations with "long discussion." The conversation led into questions and talk about the possibility of developing and applying common rubrics for the assessment of different forms of student writing (e.g., creative, informative, persuasive) in all English courses, and even in subject areas other than English. The English teacher observed that arguments over grades with students were avoided in part by providing and discussing writing samples in conjunction with the rubrics. This prompted a suggestion from the principal — "So maybe a key thing is giving samples" — after which he invited someone else to present another rubric example.

A Spanish teacher distributed and explained a set of rubrics that he had drafted with student input for a senior Spanish class project. The students were expected to plan and teach a Spanish lesson to students at the neighboring middle school, and they were being judged on presentation content, visual aids, lesson plans, and worksheets. Some of the seminar teachers suggested additional dimensions, such as "class management" and "rehearsal with a partner," and even using the rubric to assess student readiness for their actual presentations.

Box 11 (continued)

During the final 15 minutes of the seminar, a music teacher and the teacher of a psychology course presented rubrics for student assignments and projects in their courses. Some of the rubric designs focused only on students' final products or presentations, while others encompassed different stages in project preparation and presentation. In each case, teachers around the table asked for clarifications of details, and suggested modifications in the forms or use. The principal brought the seminar to a close by asking whether the teachers would like to do an in-depth "descriptive review" with student products of one of the rubrics presented, or to hear presentations about "how they worked and the kids' response . . . what worked and what didn't." They decided to do descriptive reviews with short presentations on implementation for two of the rubrics. One of the teachers announced that he'd brought along an article about rubrics, and the principal promised to "get it out to everybody."

Collaborative inquiry in some schools is approached less as a specific set of practices, or as a high-profile investigation of a critical issue or program, than as a strategic disposition towards ongoing experimentation, reflection, and professional dialogue — a *modus operandi* for continuous improvement. Questions regarding student performance, programs, scheduling arrangements, and, to a lesser extent, teaching practices is pervasive in teacher conversations in teams, in school-improvement committees, in the staff rooms, and in staff meetings. While inquiry of this sort may not conform to the canons of formal research, it is subject to the rigorous professional standards of face validity and practical relevance. And the potential for ongoing school and classroom development is quite high in conditions where colleagues cooperatively puzzle through defining a problem, determining how to defensibly investigate the problem, and judging whether the information they do gather is sufficient basis for further action.

These illustrations of systematic collaborative inquiry in the TLC schools highlight two uses of school-based inquiry in the context of school reform and renewal. The first two examples (Miami East North, Taft) exemplify the use of "research for development." This involves teachers jointly investigating practices and issues to identify needs, to make decisions about programs and school-development plans, and so on. The second two examples (Federal Hocking, Lomond) exampled by "research as development," where teacher inquiry and teacher learning are integrated into a unified professional-growth experience. A third possibility, "research of development," is exemplified by the TLC case studies.

"Extending collegial development" is a broad strategic action for school reform and renewal that focuses on collaborative professional learning. Once teachers begin to engage in joint learning experiences, a history of collegial development begins to evolve in the school, which may itself become a focus for reflection and change. A historical perspective on collegial development in the TLC schools sheds

light on the challenges of shifting from an individualistic, career-centered approach to a collaborative school- and classroom-centered approach for professional learning.

Collegial development challenges the traditional rights of teachers to change on their own terms (the one-room-schoolhouse tension), challenges the rights of teachers to determine how best to use their professional-development time (the bonding tension), and challenges teachers to publicly share their knowledge about teaching and learning. These legacies of the individualistic mode of teacher professionalism are not easily overcome by organizing collaborative professional-development structures and experiences, though the strategic actions described in this chapter can facilitate the process. The vignette in Box 12 portrays the journey of one group of teachers from an individualistic tradition of professional learning oriented towards external expertise towards collegial professional development oriented towards expertise within the school. The case provides a poignant lesson for school reformers. While school-based collegial development can be a powerful strategic action for school change, the strategic action itself is a reform which has to be worked through over time before its advantages can be reaped.

Box 12

Conversation Classes at East Muskingum

Background. Since the mid-1990s, groups of teachers from East Muskingum Middle School have participated in annual "Conversation Classes" organized with the education department of Muskingum College. Teachers identify topics of study and investigate those topics together. The format of the Conversation Classes has evolved over the years, as reflected in the history as told by a college instructor who was closely involved.

1994/95. "A theme apparent early in my work with EMMS was the tendency to address most staff-development needs through bringing in an outside expert. As we planned the Spring, 1995, Conversation Series, I suggested that teachers take turns sharing the knowledge they brought back from conferences and sites. Teachers listened politely, but it was clear that they believed this would be seen as claims of expertise that they were uncomfortable assuming. Discussion immediately turned to how guest speakers might best be scheduled. It was left to the principal and me to choose the "experts." The classes that Spring were limited to my presentations and those of outside speakers on selected topics."

1995/96. "The third year of the grant was intended to focus on the development of instructional strategies. The opening activity was a teacher inservice. I was the invited presenter. When I met with the principal after the meeting, he stressed that the group still was interested in focusing on instructional strategies in the new series of Conversation Classes. He added that teachers did not want the speakers to be college professors; instead, they preferred public school teachers who were motivated, good presenters, who actually have taken kids where they are and been successful in individualizing instruction.

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Box 12 (continued)

"Events during the third year illustrate growth in the way the teachers were beginning to take charge of their own professional development. First, a group of teachers who were exploring reading across the curriculum accepted my offer to meet as a study group.... Also, at a schoolwide staff meeting near the end of the year, eight teachers demonstrated to their peers the instructional strategies they had been experimenting with in their classes."

1996/78. "Year four began with a faculty retreat. (Teachers) shared their ongoing fear of sharing their developing expertise. The fourth year Conversation Series was developed with the goal of responding to a state evaluation team's recommendation that the classes should shift from bringing in speakers to present topics to engaging teachers actively in addressing fundamental issues. Several focus topics were identified for study. Teachers assumed responsiblity for leading whole-class discussions on these topics. Two types of class formats were used. The first was devoted to gathering information at the Muskingum College library and in one of the computer labs. This was then followed by a class in which the teachers shared and discussed what they had learned."

1998/99. "EMMS teachers' strengthened reliance on informal inquiry and collaboration is revealed in their decision to have another Conversation Series during the 1998/99 school year. A dozen teachers selected two topics that had surfaced in the Venture Capital steering committee, school climate and differentiation of instruction. The emerging norm of teachers as resources for each other is illustrated by two decisions for the seminars. They will begin each session by randomly selected one or two real classroom problems or questions anonymously dropped into a 'Conversation Questions' box prior to the class. The questions or problems selected will be read to participants, and then they will spend the next 15-20 minutes brainstorming alternatives. They also decided to bring in a special education team during the sessions on school climate, and again during the sessions on differentiation of instruction. They agreed that members of that team had much expertise to share."

(Adapted from Morrow, Martin and Glascock, 1999)

A second challenge which surfaces in the process of collegial development in school reform has to do with sustainability. Sustainability comes into play in two senses. First, how long do particular structures and patterns of collegial development persist? Should things like Critical Friends Groups, Teacher-Development Seminars, Conversation Classes, and Rookie Roundtables become institutionalized features of the school environment? Or should they come and go as temporary manifestations of an enduring commitment to the strategic idea of collegial development, though not to any specific structure and practice? The stories of professional learning in the TLC schools suggest the latter. At Federal Hocking, for example, Research-in-Action teams in the mobilization phase of reform established a

precedent for teachers learning together and teaching one another, and they set the stage for after-school Pizza Parties in which teachers with similar interests began sharing and debating experiences with classroom innovations during the implementation phase. These in turn evolved into the Teacher-Development Seminars built into the school day, where teachers sharing the same planning periods agreed to jointly experiment, share experiences, and support each other's learning with specific instructional strategies (Box 11).

The East Muskingum case study depicted in Box 12 illustrates another evolutionary pattern of collegial development. In this instance, a particular structure for collegial development — the teacher-directed Conversation Classes facilitated by professors from the local college of education — remained stable over a period of years. Yet the form of collegial learning that occurred within that structure evolved over time from listening to outside experts together, to investigating issues and practices together, to presenting and sharing experiences with instructional practices. Where collegial development takes hold as a strategic action, one does not necessarily find stable structures for joint professional learning, but one does find evolving manifestations of collegial learning over time.

The second sense of sustainability in collegial development has to do with the question of how long teachers dwell upon a particular focus or direction of learning. When teachers learn together, the decision to "stop learning about this and to move on to that" is no longer just an individual choice. Part of the power of collegial development is that it tends to impel teachers to sustain their learning over longer periods of time than they might if left to individual discretion. As a result, there is a greater likelihood of deepening professional understanding and skills in chosen areas for learning. Teachers at Lomond, for example, began their quest to reform mathematics education with a simple focus on the integration of manipulatives into the teaching and learning process. From there they moved into an investigation of the theories of meaning making underlying the use of manipulatives, which led them into the principles of constructivism and into experimentation with applications of constructivist theory. Over time they developed their own devices for documenting pupil responses to mathematical learning tasks, and for using these devices for assessment and lesson planning.

Teachers at Franklin Heights and at Federal Hocking started out with a curriculum focus on student exhibitions and curriculum integration through project-based learning. As they progressed, they discovered the need to modify the ways in which they evaluate student work, which led them to explore of alternative forms of assessment, such as portfolios and rubrics. At Dawson-Bryant, classroom reform has been characterized by a program implementation approach to change. Over a period of five years, teachers committed to schoolwide implementation of series of new programs in reading and language arts, mathematics, conflict resolution, and integrated science and social studies.

"Extending collegial development" is a strategic action through which teachers' professional-learning becomes more embedded in the classrooms and corridors of the school, more connected to the professional learning experiences of colleagues in the school, and more oriented towards investigating

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and understanding the circumstances and results of teacher–student interactions in the teaching and learning process. Not all professional learning is collegial. Not all is located in or centered upon the workplace. Not all is oriented towards studying current practices, situations, and outcomes. In schools engaged in the evolutionary process of becoming transforming learning communities, however, these elements become increasingly evident features of teachers' professional learning, and it is in the intersection of these strategic elements that the full potential of teachers' collegial development in support of continuously improving schools comes alive.

Expanding Shared Responsibility

In many schools, teachers work in isolation of one another, assuming limited responsibility beyond their particular classes and subject assignments. Teachers and administrators tend to work in different spheres of action and responsibility. Teachers' work and authority are confined to the classroom and to sites in which routine supervision of pupils is required; the principals' work is confined to the office, to discipline, to external relations, and to decisions affecting the school as a whole.

One of the significant changes in teachers' work outside the classroom in the TLC schools is increased participation in activities and decisions that imbue them with more shared responsibility for student learning and school improvement. "Expanding shared responsibility" is the strategic action of intentionally shifting towards greater collective authority, responsibility, and accountability in schools. Responsibility involves purpose. It requires participation and commitment. It demands power. It owes accountability. For responsibility to be shared there must be consensus. There must be communication. There must be collaboration. The notion of expanding captures the sense that in a transforming learning community, shared responsibility is not something that one finds compartmentalized in a particular organizational subunit (e.g., a department, team, or committee) or in a particular decision-making function (e.g., deciding on teaching assignments, deciding on expenditure of professional-development funds); rather, it is something that is pervasive in the work that teachers perform in the classroom, in the corridors, and with other communities. "Expansion" also captures the sense that becoming a transforming learning community is an evolutionary process in which shared responsibility grows as participation and the variety of contexts encompassed in its fold increases.

In this section, we examine four specific strategies associated with expanding shared responsibility in the TLC schools: (1) establishing and using shared goals and beliefs to guide action; (2) increasing communication among teachers (and with other stakeholders); (3) structuring joint responsibility for student development and school improvement; and (4) decentralizing leadership and decision-making authority.

Clearly, significant expansion in the scope of teachers' joint responsibility and participation in school decision making implies a concurrent redefinition and shift in the traditional role of principals. While we

have chosen to emphasize the nature of the changes for teachers that occur through this strategic action, it is important to acknowledge that this shift often happens with principals who "make the first move," inviting and even insisting on a more participatory way of making decisions and sharing of leadership roles. Interestingly, once teachers assume more collective control over school reform and renewal, they gain the capacity to exert and maintain this professional authority in the context of principal succession. At Federal Hocking, for example, teachers voted to adopt site-based management when threatened with the possible departure of a principal who had been instrumental in supporting a shift to more democratic management. At Brentmoor, the teachers reorganized their entire school-improvement committee structure concurrent with the departure of a principal who had provided leadership during their first four years of intensive schoolwide change. The long-term significance of shifting the institutional authority for expanding shared responsibility from principals to teachers is all the more apparent in schools like East Muskingum, Galion, and Talawanda, where school reform and renewal efforts have persisted through three or four principals.

We begin this section by returning to a now familiar theme, the importance of consensus in the process of school reform. Here, we present a more dynamic perspective in which consensus on goals is seen to arise from multiple sources over time, and to be more a result of than a precondition for other changes in the corridors. Next, we consider actions taken to develop greater communication between participants in school reform. The final two strategies — structuring shared responsibility and decentralizing leadership and decision making — converge in two organizational changes which have typified school reform in the TLC schools: teaching teams and school-improvement committees. We use these two structural innovations for discussing those points. The section concludes with an examination of conflict as a force for change in school reform.

Establishing and Using Shared Goals and Beliefs

In developing commitment to shared goals and beliefs as a basis for action, the simple premise is that people striving to achieve common purposes will be more inclined to work jointly to those ends. Three approaches to developing consensus on shared goals and beliefs were evident across the TLC schools: (1) rallying around problems in student performance; (2) engaging in the development and use of school visions (e.g., mission statements, belief statements); and (3) defining goals that challenge current practices. While these approaches are not mutually exclusive, we provide brief examples of each as a prelude to discussing their interaction in the process of school reform.

Widespread teacher dissatisfaction with student performance or behavior provided the initial impetus for school improvement in a minority of the TLC schools. In the early 1990s, for example, teachers at Dawson-Bryant found themselves frustrated by indicators of declining student performance in basic skills areas, and by the failure of traditional instructional methods to correct the problem. Together they began a search for solutions that led to the Venture Capital proposal and affiliation with the Success for

All schoolwide reform model. The change stories at Taft and at Franklin Heights had similar origins in teacher concerns about the performance of at-risk students in their Freshman year. With proactive leadership (from principals and/or teachers) and access to additional resources, the shift from teachers in isolation to teachers taking joint responsibility for student performance is easier to achieve when the purpose for joint work centers on widely recognized problems in student performance and/or behavior.

State Proficiency Test results have also drawn teachers together in collaborative efforts to improve student performance. Dissatisfaction with proficiency test results appears to promote a version of school change characterized by "adding on" specific intervention measures for students who do not perform well in specific subject areas, such as lunchtime or after-school tutoring programs, and less on linking this "problem" to potentially wider and deeper reform agendas. This is the difference, say, between rushing to set up afternoon intervention classes for low-performing students, versus something a school like Miami East North does by situating the test results (and what to do with the results) in an action-research cadre and cycle of inquiry (see Box 10).

In other schools, a rationale for increased teacher collaboration emerged initially from deliberate efforts to forge consensus on common purposes among teachers through public declarations of school philosophies, missions, belief statements, and/or goals. Among the TLC middle schools, for example, core elements of the "middle school philosophy," such as personalized education, teaming, curriculum integration, whole student development, and student advisories, have been prominent focal points for collective discussion and action since the mid-1980's. Venture Capital and similar school development initiatives at the district level provided an opportunity for some of the TLC elementary schools to bring their faculties together to define their visions for the school and to select or develop a model for school improvement.

A third strategic approach to consensus building centers on teacher involvement in redefining the learning goals for students, thereby challenging existing teaching practices and student learning outcomes. At Reynoldsburg, teachers sought input from representatives of the local business community about workplace-related student learning needs. This led to a reconceptualization of desired curriculum outcomes and to a variety of classroom-centered school and community linkages. At Franklin Heights, adoption of the Tech Prep curriculum model resulted in the development by teachers of multiple program tracks in grades nine through 12. At all levels of the new curriculum, students are involved in group projects requiring some form of exhibition with portfolios and presentations.

These three strategies for consensus building on goals can emerge at different stages of a school's improvement efforts. Once teachers at Federal Hocking solved school climate and discipline problems that initially sparked their collegial change efforts, they moved into a vision-building phase. One outcome of their vision-building was to embark on a multi-year project to redefine graduation standards to fit the new approaches to teaching and learning introduced during the Venture Capital years. The faculty at Franklin Heights followed a similar path from responding initially to the needs of a segment of the

Freshman population, to developing a mission statement and new vision for the education of all students, to actual curriculum reform. The experience of the TLC schools suggests that shared responsibility among teachers for student development and school improvement is enhanced when consensus encompasses general agreement on all three areas — core beliefs, problems in student performance, and expectations for student performance — and that one characteristic of schools that function as transforming learning communities is a progressive integration of these three major sets of shared goals and beliefs over time.

The relationship between developing consensus, joint responsibility and collective action is not without challenges. Problem-oriented consensus, for example, may disappear once the problem has been attended to or displaced by other priorities. In the robust examples of continuous improvement among the TLC schools, problems are identified and interpreted in light of teachers' joint commitment to schoolwide goals and beliefs. Problem solving becomes an incremental march towards a commonly defined agenda for education, rather than a series of disconnected interventions defined by the crisis of the moment.

Teachers and other stakeholders (e.g., parents and students) may coalesce momentarily in the development of school visions and goals. But school mission statements and statements of beliefs may do little more than reflect stakeholder perceptions of general aspirations and the status quo, without serving as catalysts for improvement. The establishment of consensually defined goals and beliefs is more likely to result in shared responsibility and action when they are actually invoked in decision making, and when multiple and recurring opportunities are provided to revisit, question, challenge, and even modify those goals and beliefs in light of current practices and change initiatives.

Finally, we note that schools often devote a great deal of energy "up front" to agreement on goals, mission statements, philosophies, statements of belief, and the like, which are then expected to serve as both a platform and an inspiration for continuous self examination and improvement. In this regard the TLC schools are no different. In these schools, however, initial formulations of shared goals and beliefs are not immutable. They become part of an ongoing professional dialogue among teachers in teams, in committees, in staff meetings, on retreats, and with students and other communities. Consensus on core goals and beliefs is developed as well as sustained in these daily interactions. As initial ideas are further discussed in light of experiences with implementation, they become malleable and subject to change, leading to a renewed (and perhaps stronger) consensus that is more a product than a precondition of change. It is for this reason that increasing communication, structuring shared responsibilities, and decentralizing leadership and authority increase the probability that consensus will be sustained.

Increasing Mutual Communication

Schools that live as transforming learning communities are storybooks of change. As noted in Chapter One, some stories reflect the routine and unexpected shifts in student characteristics, teaching assignments, curriculum expectations, and the like, which are part of the normal life of teachers and teaching. Other stories arise from deliberate individual and collective efforts on the part of teachers and other stakeholders in the local school community to introduce planned changes in response to perceived needs in the classrooms or corridors. In the TLC schools, one finds the individual stories intertwined and connected to the collective stories. And out of these connections a meta-narrative emerges, which becomes the overall story and eventually the saga of continuous change and renewal in the school. It is a story in which the language is a shared language, whose terms and meanings have been negotiated, defined, and absorbed through ongoing conversations in the classrooms and corridors and beyond. It is a story in which all those participating in those conversations can recognize their place as contributing authors. Communication among teachers and between teachers and other stakeholders is what brings these stories together into a shared narrative of school change. Increasing communication, then, is an important condition of expanding shared responsibility for school reform.

Across the TLC schools, one encounters a common variety of approaches to increasing communication among teachers and other participants in the change process. One approach is to broaden communication through participation in organizational structures, such as site-based committees, school-improvement committees, teams, team meetings with principals, staff meetings, and advisory groups, and by creating spaces where people might come together informally (e.g., teacher resource rooms, parent centers). Another approach is to broaden communication through media and special events, such as school and community newsletters, school brochures, and public meetings. The potential for technology-supported communication is only beginning to find its way into the school corridors. At Talawanda, all teachers have personal computers in the classroom, and they regularly log-on to the in-house computer network for electronic-mail communication with peers, or to read and provide input into folders containing minutes and conferences relating to the work of school committees.

The TLC cases offer insights for increasing communication as a strategy for expanding the overall sense of community, shared responsibility, and participation in school reform. One is to develop communication for exchange of information and ideas (not communication of a message from reformers to those expected to change). Second is to create multiple channels through which people can share ideas, so that people are not always communicating with the same coterie of colleagues, and so that more people are actually involved in the conversation, not just hearing about it. Third is the importance of developing communication links between different groups, partly through interpersonal interaction by bringing people together in varying configurations, and partly by disseminating ideas and news through steering committees, sharing of minutes, newsletters, memos, electronic mail and the like. Finally, there is a need to maintain regular schoolwide forums for communication about school reform. Communication

may not be the tie that binds, but it is certainly a thread that connects. And these connections facilitate the emergence of shared understanding and responsibility over time.

Structuring Joint Responsibility and Decentralized Control

In many of the TLC schools, the opportunity and perceived need for teachers to assume joint responsibility for students is increased through the establishment of teaching teams, and school development is increased through the establishment of school-improvement committees. This restructuring of responsibility is accompanied by a decentralization of decision-making authority and leadership to those collaborative work groups.

The assignment of cohorts of students to teams of teachers presents the most obvious example of teachers shifting from solo to collaborative responsibility for student development. Teachers who assume joint responsibility for the education of specific groups of students often begin working together on things they used to do alone, such as curriculum and unit planning, monitoring and evaluating student progress, student adjustment, classroom management, academic and behavioral intervention, and, in a few cases, team teaching in the same classroom (see example, Box 13). It is possible for teaching teams to share responsibility for the learning and development of their students yet remain detached from wider agendas for change and improvement in the school. In the TLC schools in which teaming is an institutionalized feature of the teaching profession, however, it is common to observe an integration of shared responsibility for students and schoolwide priorities. The team vignette in Box 14 illustrates the varied directions in which shared responsibility can expand, in this case, from student welfare, to learning experiences, to linking those plans to schoolwide goals for student performance.

Box 13

Tribe Meeting, Talawanda Middle School

Setting: There are two tribes of teachers and students for each grade level at Talawanda. Teaching teams for each tribe include an English teacher, a math teacher, a science teacher, and a social studies teacher. Meeting time for tribes is built into the daily schedule. School guidance counselors often participate in tribe meetings when teachers are conferencing about students academically or behaviorally at risk.

Observation: Tribe meeting, first period, conference room in the office area. The teachers are seated around the conference table filling out marks sheets and chatting informally while awaiting the arrival of a parent who's been called in for a conference. The science teacher asks the social studies teacher what he's doing "with economics." The English and mathematics teachers are discussing a student about whom they both have concerns. One of the teachers pulls out a folder and suggests that they "do 'student-of-the-week' while waiting" (a positive-reinforcement program implemented

throughout grades seven and eight in all tribes.). They read off names from a student list, pausing to discuss potential candidates and reasons for rewarding them, including grades ("He's treading water in my class"), behavior ("He's so good in class helping others"), past rewards ("We haven't done her yet"), gender ("Do we want to try a boy?"), and use of the reward as an "incentive" for a student who is struggling in various ways. The counselor and parent arrive. The counselor initiates the conference, describing the student's situation — failing in most subjects, not completing her schoolwork, being disruptive with other students in the halls and lunch room, and having scored about 30% below the school average on proficiency tests. Each teacher summarizes the girl's academic performance in their classes, and their observations of her behavior in and out of class. They agree that the behavioral problems are mostly outside of class when she is unsupervised, and that her performance in class is better when she has highly structured tasks and close supervision. One teacher mentions the girl's high motivation for a current assignment on careers, and her voluntary participation in "study tables" for students seeking extra support and a quiet place to study. Through their dialogue, the teachers identify a pattern of problems in the girl's comprehension and performance, and begin to wonder about possible undetected learning disabilities. The counselor shifts to exploring ways that the parent can help monitor and support completion of schoolwork at home. The conference ends with the teachers, counselor, and parent agreeing to a plan of action that includes meeting with her as a team to talk about the use of a homework planner, having her attend "study tables" supervised by one of the teachers, discussing alternative ways of removing her from situations which have resulted in inappropriate behavior in the halls and cafeteria, and arranging testing for learning disabilities.

Expanding shared responsibility increases the chances that changes will be addressed across multiple dimensions of teachers' work with students and colleagues, thereby increasing the potential for change.

In most of the TLC schools with teams, teaching teams are empowered to make decisions within their team regarding scheduling, grouping of students, curriculum integration and delivery, student management and incentives. This decision-making power is built into the teaming arrangements. Over time, this can evolve into quite complicated programing and scheduling arrangements. Grade-level teams at East Muskingum, for example, function virtually as schools within the school. The grade-five, grades-six-and-seven, and grade-eight teams operate on different schedules, with different configurations of semester-long and full-year courses, separate arrangements with the Arts team, and variable within-team partnerships. At Reynoldsburg and at Franklin Heights, programs developed and implemented by teaching teams for shared cohorts of students run parallel with traditional programs, in which teachers are independently responsible for their own courses and students attend classes with different peers in most courses. At Dawson-Bryant Elementary, half the teachers implemented a full-year school calendar, while the other half implemented the traditional nine-month calendar. Logistically, it appears that almost anything is possible once teachers and administrators put their minds to it.

Box 14

Grade 9 Team Meeting, Taft High School

Setting: Last period of the day is set aside for teaching teams to meet for team planning and discussion about student and curriculum matters. The core teams consist of an English teacher, a mathematics teacher, a science teacher, and a social studies teacher. Non-academic teachers, such as physical education teachers, may drop in as well.

Observation: During the first half of the team meeting the discussion focuses on issues pertaining to individual students and to groups of students that the team members share. They review attendance records from the past week to check each other's awareness of who has been absent and why. In the course of this conversation they share recent news about students: "M has moved from our team to another to accommodate French," "Disheartening news: S is pregnant." They talk about issues related to individual student performance and behavior, and read some written statements and apologies by students who had been assigned to In-School Suspension. There is a brief conversation about the academic and behavioral adjustment of a girl who was just moved into their academically advanced "double A" cohort, and about several female students considered socially at risk. This leads to an extended discussion about overall motivation and behavior of the double A group, and the need to go with a more structured and teacher-oriented class for a while.

In the second half of the meeting, the team discusses ideas for a team proposal to the school Best Practices Committee for Venture Capital funds to support a field trip and student incentives (T-shirts). A variety of field trip ideas are considered, and the team settles on a trip to the circus in the spring, with the intention of creating an interdisciplinary unit based on a circus theme. They discuss how this activity could be designed to address the Venture Capital indicators, such as improved attendance and discipline. Finally, they agree on which team members will draft which parts of the proposal over the weekend.

Decentralizing decision-making authority to semi-autonomous teams can serve as a powerful device for stimulating innovation. Creative ideas can be tried out within teams that do not require the consensus of the entire staff. Although over time this can lead to increasing differentiation among teams, it can also create a ripple effect, in which changes in one subunit are subsequently adopted by other subunits after they have had the chance to observe and talk with the pioneers about the results. From a decision-making and change standpoint, however, complications can arise if one team proposes to adjust its delivery in ways that interfere with the arrangements of other teams. Hence, there is a need for steering committee-like structures through which proposals for change in one subunit can be analyzed and discussed in terms of the consequences for the work of others.

Teacher teaming is not the only way TLC schools have found to structure and expand joint responsibility for student learning. At Dawson-Bryant, all teachers are teachers of the integrated language arts program for the first 90 minutes of the day. The children are organized into homogeneously leveled groups of about 10-15 students based on their performance levels in reading and writing. Students are individually assessed every eight weeks. Teachers convene by grade level to review student progress and to adjust the reading groupings accordingly. As a result, teachers collectively review and take responsibility for the instruction and placement of all students. From year to year, teachers are assigned responsibility for different reading-group levels, to avoid any one teacher from becoming associated with only one category of students. At Federal Hocking, teachers have also agreed not to lock themselves into exactly the same courses and grade levels year after year. By altering their teaching assignments on an ongoing basis, the teachers have found themselves experiencing a greater sense of community and responsibility for students across the school, not just in their classes.

School-improvement committees are one of the primary vehicles employed in the TLC schools to expand the participation of teachers (also of parents and students) in conversations and decision making about school reform. Work on school committees is certainly not a change for teachers. The difference reported by teachers is that these committees do not deal with routine matters like duty schedules, or special events like graduation. Instead, they are charged with planning, initiating, and monitoring school-improvement activities related to specific priorities for school change on behalf of the entire school community, and often given control over funds to support their work.

Several school-improvement committee models are found in the TLC schools. One version is a steering committee with representation from different subunits (e.g., teams, departments) to coordinate expenditures and implementation of school-reform initiatives. Another is to create committees for major priorities of school reform. At Talawanda, Venture Capital committees were formed for School Climate, Technology, Alternative Scheduling, Student Success, and Student Activities. At East Muskingum, focus groups were formed for Reading Intervention, Technology, Proficiency Testing, and Parent/Community Involvement.

A school faculty intending to organize school- improvement committees would be wise to consider the following questions:

Key Questions for the Establishment of School-Improvement Committees

Mandate:	What is the focus and responsibility of the committee?
Membership:	Who should be represented on the committees?
Tenure:	Should membership be mandatory/voluntary, open/closed?
Duration:	How long should the committee exist? How often should the membership change?
Budget:	What resources does the committee need to do its work? Source?
Authority:	What authority will the committee have to make, approve, or propose decisions pertaining to school reform and renewal?
Leadership:	How will leadership on the committee be determined and exercised?
Relations:	How does the committee's work relate to other governance structures?
Communication:	How will the committee communicate with other stakeholder groups?

The work of school-improvement committees increases communication among teachers (typically with colleagues outside their daily team, grade level, or team affiliations), while giving them more responsibility, opportunity for leadership, and control over school reform and renewal. At times, school-improvement committees may play a research and development role — studying issues, alternative solutions, and submitting proposals for action. At times, they may play a change-agent role — initiating actions, inservice training of colleagues, facilitating implementation, monitoring and reporting results. Control over funds to do their work appears to be a significant factor contributing to their sense of responsibility and empowerment, as does the freedom to develop and carry out their own workplans for their responsibilities. The vignettes in Boxes 15 and 16 are illustrative of the work carried out by teachers participating in school-improvement committees. The first portrays a school steering committee facilitated by school administrators. The second portrays a teacher-led curriculum committee engaged in an investigation of the curriculum implications of moving to a block schedule.

Box 15

Monthly 20/20 Leadership Team Meeting at Galion

Background: The 20/20 team is a building leadership team consisting of teacher representatives from each grade-level team, the Encore team (non-academic subject teams), the principal and assistant principal. At monthly day-long meetings, the team discusses progress and problems related to building and district goals, and initates action plans.

"The 20/20 team members began their day-long work session greeting each other and enjoying the baked goods and beverages provided.

"A teacher from each instructional team and the Encore team was present along with the principal and assistant principal. The session began with a discussion on the effectiveness of the current parent conferences: the number of parents attending, variety of conference formats utilized, intent of conferences, and possible suggestions for the spring conferences were topics reviewed. The group discussed the changes that have occurred in relation to parent conferencing.

"The leadership team then moved to discussion on various benchmarks associated with the Venture Capital grant, and the progress being made towards meeting each. The teachers focused on the number of students earning an F grade on their report card, and the types of conferencing strategies that were being used to share this information with parents. The grant budget concerns were reviewed, and the teachers requested greater involvement in the expenditure of funds. The issuance of new standards by the Ohio High School Athletic Association and how these were connected with the benchmarks was discussed. The teachers utilized this information to further consider how attendance and discipline data relate to student grades. They discussed several interventions each of the teams might undertake in attendance and discipline.

"The 20/20 group spent a period of time discussing and planning the upcoming staff inservice and aligned the goals for the day with corresponding activities. They assigned facilitating duties.

"The day was very fast paced and the work of the 20/20 team targeted. Each member remained engaged in the discussions at hand. Each teacher expressed opinions. Administrators acted as facilitators and sometimes as devil's advocates throughout the day, attempting to elicit all available perspectives. Following each 20/20 meeting, team leaders are responsible for taking information back for input and further discussion with individual teams, and to report back at the following 20/20 meeting."

(Adapted from Berkowitz and Uline, 1999)

Box 16

Curriculum Committee Meeting at Talawanda

Background: The faculty is considering whether to change from 40-minute periods. The Curriculum Committee is spearheading research into alternative scheduling patterns and instructional approaches. A team has just returned from visiting a model school in Indiana.

Observation: Wednesday early release day, 2:20 p.m. – 3:10 p.m. Curriculum Committee of about eight teachers and an assistant principal are meeting in an empty classroom. A teacher reports on her visit to the Key School in Indiana: "They do whole-school thematic units . . . everything is webbed . . . 300 students with 150 community mentors who meet the kids every week . . . video and portfolio assessment . . . interdisciplinary teams and multiage groups . . . research-based curriculum . . . every kid plays the violin. . . . Not a rich school . . . If there's a discipline problem, kids are asked to leave. They use Multiple Intelligences . . . even on the report card. . . ." The teacher's report prompts numerous comments and questions, including one from the assistant principal: "What could we apply here?" Sample comments: "If we did a school within a school, we'd have to hire more teachers"; "The discipline problem we'd still have, cause [there's] no option to send kids elsewhere"; "What's the self-assessment part of the report card?"; "How often do they do portfolio assessment?" The teachers spend several minutes sharing their own experiences with curriculum integration: "The Dragonfly science project last year drove the curriculum"; "I can teach anything — give me a car and I'll teach it"; "What's neat about this is that the interest comes from the kids: they brainstorm and come up with three to four units." An art teacher talks about the potential for arts-based curriculum integration and a Multiple Intelligences approach. This leads into teacher discussion about lack of time for joint planning: "Tribe times were for interdisciplinary planning, but so much of tribe time is now taken for discipline and parent conferences." The conversation turns to feasibility issues: "Where do we start?"; "I'd love to have a school within a school but you've got to have committed people"; "Maybe ask for volunteers to start with a multi-age tribe — people who aren't afraid to give up [their] knowledge base." One teacher observes, "We can come up with ideas, but our problem is first and foremost selling this or other ideas to staff. I don't know where we are on that." Some of the teachers suggest that exploration of teaching approaches should be deferred until after a schoolwide inservice meetings which they organized on block scheduling, and until a decision has been made about the schedule change. Another disagrees: "We need to investigate the potential impact on different curriculum areas so we can give an honest answer. We don't have to know what we want yet, but we need to know the choices"; "We need to communicate to people that we are looking at options, and considering the reality in our setting."

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School-improvement committees operate in a context of more decentralized power, though they are rarely authorized to make decisions affecting the school as a whole. They are more likely to propose actions, which are then fed into the normal decision-making structures and processes of the school. While the committees are typically teacher-led, it is not uncommon for principals or assistant principals to interact with the committees in a resource and advisory role regarding feasibility and policies. Most of the TLC principals were quite deliberate in their efforts not to take leadership and exert authority in these committees, yet still maintaining awareness of the committees' work (attending meetings, reading minutes, working with steering committees). Principals fulfill an important supporting role in the work of school-improvement committees. They play an instrumental role in the implementation of decisions and actions resulting from the committees' work. As teachers take more responsibility for decision making, however, they are likely to take more responsibility for ensuring implementation of those decisions as well. Expanding shared responsibility goes beyond deciding what to do to seeing that it gets done.

Working with Conflict as a Force for Change

Consensus-building strategies, improved communications, collaborative work groups, and decentralized leadership and decision making contribute to the expansion of shared responsibility for school reform and renewal, but they do not remove dissension from the process. Disagreement over the needs for change, proposed solutions, implementation progress, and outcomes is unavoidable in the process of school reform and renewal. We looked across the TLC cases to see what lessons might be culled for how to work with conflict as a force for change.

One thing is certain. Where conflict occurs in the process of school reform and renewal, principals are in the middle of it, sometimes as conflict managers, sometimes as provocateurs, sometimes as targets. And it is from principals that we learn the most about different ways of working with conflict in the process of change in schools. The following list summarizes a variety of strategies for dealing with conflict described by principals:

Six Ways to Deal with Conflict in the Process of School Reform

1. Establish structures that enable conflict to find expression.
2. Encourage and respect debate on ideas (not people).
3. Work towards consensus, not towards votes.
4. Accommodate diversity in practice.
5. Negotiate alternatives to nonparticipation.
6. Isolate or remove dissension.

A key underlying principle or perspective is that the best decisions arise through open discussion of alternative ideas. Communication and decision-making structures and processes should invite and facilitate continuous discussion of alternative ideas about needs and choices for school change from various stakeholders. The channels for getting opinions heard should be accessible to all parties.

Teachers and principals in the TLC schools used the language of "site-based management" with reference to teacher and other local stakeholder participation in school decision making. Contractually mandated site-based governance systems, however, were present only in three schools; in two of those schools teachers had only voted site-based management clauses into their contracts in the year or two preceding the case studies. Even when a school sets up structures such as teaching teams and school improvement committees, which presumably promote shared responsibility and governance, consensus on reform will not necessarily be more readily achieved without attending to strategies for conflict resolution.

In those TLC schools where professional differences appear to contribute most positively to the process of improvement, teachers and principals emphasize the importance of demonstrating respect for alternative views, and about focusing debate on ideas, not on the people expressing those ideas. A principal from one of the schools, for example, invited a school board member who voted not to renew his contract to sit on a school planning committee! Exploration of opposing views deepens understanding of the underlying issues and opens the door to unexpected joint solutions.

Principals talk about their role in encouraging and provoking debate by posing alternatives when they do not surface naturally, and by critically questioning the basis for decisions and actions under consideration. One principal characterized himself as "the sand in the oyster." In order for principals to play this role, they have to involve themselves in the conversations among teachers. This is exemplified in strategies like weekly or bi-weekly meetings of teaching teams with principals at East Muskingum and Federal Hocking; after-school "paradigm buster" meetings with the principal and teachers interested in critically debating current norms, structures, and practices at Reynoldsburg; and monthly 20/20 leadership team meetings at Galion (see Box 15). Critical questioning by principals and colleagues stimulates reflection and debate as an ongoing feature of professional conversations about school needs, proposals for change, practices, and results. The value of this analytical conversation is enhanced when there is prior consensus on core beliefs, goals, or needs that provides a platform for discussion.

Should decision making be by consensus or by vote? Voting has a legitimate place, particularly when change involves the adoption of programs and/or practices that truly have schoolwide implications. (When schools were choosing Venture Capital models for school change, evidence of 80% faculty approval was required). A lesson from the TLC schools, however, is that voting should not be the primary way of dealing with conflicting ideas, and that when voting is required, it should be preceded by ample opportunity for exploration of alternative views and for generation of joint solutions. Principals and teachers in most of the TLC schools emphasize the importance of working towards consensus as

an alternative or as a precursor to decision making by vote. Achieving consensus appears most likely when authority is grounded in "principles not principals" (Sekayi, Peterman, Caputo & Stakich, 1999), and when decisions arise through daily, ongoing communication between stakeholders.

Consensus or majority vote notwithstanding, school reform efforts are inevitably complicated by teachers who claim the professional prerogative to opt out. Faced with that reality, what are their principals and colleagues to do? One alternative seen in some of the TLC schools is to openly accommodate diversity. By this we mean that teachers agree to respect traditional norms of individual professional autonomy, and to accept variation in professional beliefs and practices, even if it means that some colleagues opt out of school reforms actively endorsed and pursued by the majority. Accommodating rights to professional autonomy allows diversity in beliefs and practices to co-exist within the school community, but it makes it difficult to advance schoolwide reform.

Some TLC schools take a different spin on professional autonomy. At Reynoldsburg, for example, pressure for autonomy was reframed in terms of the principle of choice. Creating options for teachers (e.g., to team or not, to participate in Critical Friends Groups or not, to integrate curriculum or not, to emphasize exhibitions of student learning or not) and for students (e.g., to create their own timetables, to be taught by teams or by separate instructors) is regarded as a virtue to be actively pursued and enacted as one of the core principles of the school reform agenda. Arena scheduling to enable greater freedom of choice for students in courses and timetables is a recent manifestation of this principle. From this perspective, the ideology and exercise of autonomy becomes an expression of the school vision, rather than a professional excuse for "anything goes."

One TLC principal talked about dealing with pressure from some teachers to opt out of schoolwide reform efforts by negotiating alternatives to nonparticipation. Key steps in this strategy are to listen to objections, to explore the reasons, to address the problems, and to present options for involvement. Instead of defining opposition as resistance, this strategy takes an inquiry and problem-solving approach to conflict. It demonstrates respect for alternative views, provides latitude for how change is manifested in practice, yet maintains the pressure for collective action towards school change.

Across the TLC cases, we find that isolating or removing dissension can be used judiciously to facilitate change in certain situations, but not as the primary response to dissenting voices. By dissenting voices, we are primarily referring to teachers whose views and preferred ways of working in the classrooms and the corridors diverge substantially from those which are reflected in the major initiatives for schoolwide reform that are supported by a majority of faculty. For example, teachers and administrators in several of the TLC schools consciously seek and hire new teachers who are willing to work with the core ideas and practices associated with past and ongoing agendas for school reform and renewal. Over time, teachers less committed to these changes are gradually replaced through the natural course of retirements and transfers. A second instance in which removal may be an appropriate course of action is when those who dissent fail to respect the views of other colleagues or actively subvert the

processes created to enable shared responsibility and decision making. Having said that, we are mindful that the advocates and supporters of change can be equally guilty of intolerance of dissenting voices. Public isolation of colleagues whose professional views and choices are not in line with reform efforts supported by the adminstration and a majority of teachers creates an unhealthy climate for reform in the school, and it leads to Balkanization of staff into "in" groups and "out" groups. Actions that tend to lead to this kind of undesirable outcome include labeling people with opposing views as "resisters" or "saboteurs," distributing resources such as time and money for professional activities inequitably to supporters and nonsupporters of change, and publicly recognizing teachers who collaborate in school change, while ignoring contributions of those who do not. Nonpunitive alternatives to isolation and removal of dissenters and dissension are embedded in the enactment of the five other ways of dealing with conflict discussed above.

Reform and renewal in the TLC schools involves an expansion of shared responsibility among school personnel through such measures as identifying and using common goals and beliefs as a basis for action, increasing communication among stakeholders, structuring joint responsibility for student learning and school reform, and widening participation in decision making and leadership. For teachers in these schools, the assumption of shared responsibility for student development and school change represented a change from more individualistic professional relations with students, and from more centralized and administratively controlled processes of school improvement. The change did not occur overnight. It was a gradual, expanding process, evolving over time to encompass increasing numbers of teachers, an increasing variety of contexts, and an increasing range of decision-making and action domains in the corridors.

In Chapter One, we argued that in schools inhabited by transforming learning communities, teacher change in the corridors is characteristically and increasingly enacted on behalf of classrooms. That is, changes in the ways that teachers work with one another and with communities outside the school either arise from or intentionally support changes in teacher–student interactions in the classroom. In this chapter, we focused on how the work of teachers and principals in the corridors is affected by the strategic actions of building capacity for joint work, extending collegial development, and expanding shared responsibility for school reform and renewal. Across the TLC schools, we found that these core strategic actions — teachers working together, teachers learning together, and teachers sharing responsibility for student development and school reform — were at once powerful catalysts for classroom change and changes in their own right in the nature of teachers' professional work outside but on behalf of the classroom. We explored some of the dynamics and issues that characterize these transformations in teachers' work over time in the process of sustained school reform and renewal. Through the TLC cases, we discovered that teacher capacity for joint work is enhanced in part through the reorganization of time, personnel, and space, and in part through clarity of purpose and assistance in learning to work as colleagues. We were reminded that teachers, as well as students, are learners in transforming learning communities, and that in these schools the professional learning of teachers is increasingly

school-based; increasingly a shared experience drawing upon the mutual expertise of other teachers within the school; and increasingly associated with professional curiosity into the effects of existing practices, and structure on teaching and learning. We found that transforming learning communities are places where teachers work has become increasingly interdependent, where shared responsibility has come to characterize the core domains of teachers work with students and related work with colleagues and others with a vested interest in student development. In this process, principals increasingly assume the role of partners in change with teachers, rather than directors of change for teachers.

Up to this point, we have concentrated on the work of teachers, with the collaborative leadership and support of principals, as key strategists and implementors of change in transforming learning communities. None of the TLC schools accomplished what they accomplished, however, entirely on their own. They all made strategic use of contacts and resources outside the school. In Chapter Five, we explore these connections with parents and other external agents that have played significant roles in the development of these schools as transforming learning communities.

Chapter Five

Reconstructing the Work of Schools: As Part of Other Communities

Empowerment and connections are two trends in education reform. On the one hand, schools are being encouraged to disengage from the education bureaucracy through site-based management, policy waivers, charter schools, and the like, ostensibly to disencumber themselves from organizational and political constraints to innovation and improvement. On the other hand, schools are being challenged to develop new connections and working relationships with an increasing array of traditional and not-so-traditional external partners — parents, other schools, universities, community organizations, business. "As part of other communities" signifies this third context of the work of school personnel on behalf of improvement in student learning in the classroom. Negotiating and sustaining external linkages is the strategic action which denotes this field of relationship in the 12 transforming learning community schools.

Schools, of course, have always had linkages to parents and a wide variety of outside agencies. Our intent, here, is not to describe the array of external linkages between the TLC schools, parents, and other external communities, but rather, to highlight the strategic role of external connections as both a support and a focus for reform. This distinction is important to bear in mind, because it reflects two approaches to interaction with parents and with other communities beyond the school. One approach is to develop external linkages in order to acquire additional resources and support for school-based or school-centered reforms. The second is to collaborate in the planning and delivery of education and related services for students and their families. The first involves efforts to improve existing external linkages (e.g., with parents), as well as establishing new linkages (e.g., with professional-development providers), in order to help the school do its job better. The second involves a redefinition and restructuring of the work of the school and of external partners to actually collaborate in some areas of educational provision (e.g., community learning and school-to-work programs, attending to family needs for support).

All of the TLC schools interact with parents and other sources outside the school for the purpose of gaining additional resources and support for school change and improvement. These interactions typically focus on one or more of the following needs for support: funding and materials, professional development, and reinforcement for the work of teachers and principals. Less common are the schools that have undertaken different forms of external partnerships to collaboratively plan and deliver some aspect of educational services on behalf of students. In effect, school partnerships, with external sources for purposes other than acquiring resources and support, appear to be an emerging frontier that is expanding traditional concepts of the school as a learning community, as well as the variety of stakeholders with a legitimate voice in local decisions about school reform.

The remainder of this chapter is organized in terms of three major sources of external linkages to school personnel and students: parents, other educators, and community partners. We provide an overview of what role each source of external linkages plays in the change stories of the 12 TLC schools, and comment more generally about school linkages with other communities and the process of educational change. The title of this chapter broadens the focus of change from teachers' work (Chapters One and Two) to change in the work of schools more generally. On the one hand, this acknowledges the pivotal role of principals on the border between schools and external sources. On the other hand, it acknowledges the developmental nature of changes in school relations with parents and other external agents, where teacher involvement may be quite limited initially, but gradually expand over time.

Working with Parents

Parental involvement is a common school-improvement priority across the TLC schools, though few set out to fundamentally alter the nature of parent–school interactions. They are mostly concerned with improving communications with parents, increasing the number of volunteers in the schools, and increasing parental participation in school decision-making processes. A few introduced small-scale innovations to encourage parents to help students at home with their schoolwork. Overall, parent involvement initiatives associated with the TLC cases are mostly modest attempts to enhance existing linkages with parents, in order to reinforce the change-related work of teachers and principals.

Deliberate efforts to improve communications with parents typically focus on educating and enlisting parental support for school reforms, not on changing the habitual nature of parent–school communications. These include conventional school–home communication devices, such as parent–community night presentations, open-houses, newsletters, public relations (e.g., pamphlets), articles about school initiatives in local newspapers, and presentations at school board meetings.

A few schools have experimented with less conventional ways of introducing parents to innovative teaching and learning strategies. At Brentmoor, parent leaders went with teachers to the National Paideia Center in Chapel Hill, North Carolina, to be trained in the Paideia principles and instructional approach, which combines didactic teaching with coaching and a group–discussion strategy referred to as "Socratic seminars" (see Chapter Three, Box 4). Three "Parent Seminars" were held in each of the first two years of the Venture Capital grant. These events provided an occasion to simultaneously introduce parents to the Socratic seminar method of instruction, and to use the format as a way to elicit parental input into issues relating to the school and its reform efforts. This process was institutionalized through a Parent Seminar Committee led by parents, which assumed responsibility for planning four parent seminars a year. As the original parent leaders "graduated" with their children to the local middle school, new parent leaders were recruited and sent to Chapel Hill for formal training in the Paideia model. At Lomond, school administrators and teachers learning to implement a constructivist approach to mathematics education organized a series of Parent–Teacher Math Nights to introduce parents to constructivist teaching. They did this by modeling constructivist teaching and learning with parents attending the meetings. The principal also involved a group of supportive parents in designing a schoolwide project entitled "Families Talking Math." The parents created problem-solving activities for children to solve at home with adults, set up a rewards program for students who brought back solutions signed by parents, and purchased mathematics manipulatives that students could check out and take home. Franklin Heights and Reynoldsburg teachers recruit parents and other community members to assist in the evaluation of student project exhibitions, which are one of the key teaching and learning innovations adopted in their school-reform initiatives.

These innovative strategies for educating parents about school-reform initiatives are notable in how they alter traditional approaches to parental support through parent education. One approach illustrated in these examples is to provide occasions for parents to experience novel instructional strategies from the perspective of students. A second is to create opportunities and support for parent-to-parent education about school change initiatives, rather than relying on teacher-to-parent communication. Finally, parent education about teaching and learning in the school is attended to as an ongoing need, not as a one-shot event, due to turnover in the student–parent clientele. A common thrust of these strategies is to develop parental understanding of what is happening in the classroom.

Parent education in some schools includes facilitating the organization of political support for school-change initiatives within the community. Examples include parent coalitions, high-profile parent involvement on key school-improvement committees and decision-making groups, and informal lobbying of parent and community leaders. This kind of support-generation activity is more typical of settings where controversy around school change proposals and activities has arisen within the school and community. Principals and district administrators, rather than classroom teachers, tend to be the most closely involved in these kinds of activities in consultation with community advocates, who take the lead in carrying out activities to strengthen support for controversial school change initiatives within the school community.

Apart from efforts to educate parents about the changes taking place at the school, a few TLC schools have introduced new mechanisms for teacher–parent communications about student performance. At Dawson-Bryant, technology-development grant funds were used to install telephones and a "Homework Hotline" in every classroom. Parents can call the Hotline to find out about their child's homework and to leave voice-mail messages for the teacher. Teachers can contact parents directly from their classrooms. During the first year of operation, over 40,000 calls were logged into the school, and another 40,000 were made from the school to the outside. At Lomond, Reynoldsburg, Federal Hocking, and the upper grade levels of Talawanda, student-led conferences have begun to replace the traditional parent–teacher conferences about student progress. Student-led conferences tend to emerge in schools where project learning and portfolio assessment have taken hold in the classrooms. In all the middle and high schools where teaching teams exist, parents are frequently called in for joint conferencing about at-risk student academic, social, and/or behavioral concerns. In each of these instances, traditional modes of teacher–parent communication are being replaced by new media or contexts for communications.

How are "needs for parental involvement" identified? Cranwood teachers take a different orientation than many schools. Instead of structuring activities around teacher-centered motives for parent involvement, they invite parents to decide what kinds of parental involvement are desirable, and take action accordingly (Box 17).

Box 17

Responding to Parent Ideas for Parental Involvement at Cranwood

The lead teacher opened Cranwood to more parental involvement through programs such as Donuts for Dad and Muffins for Mom. The lead teacher articulated the impetus behind these programs in an interview.

"This year we tried to do a lot more of what parents requested that we do, either before school or after school, to get more involved in their children's feelings. We did a 'Donuts for Dad.' There were about 150 people in the student cafeteria; there was standing room only! It wasn't just for dads. It was for any male — a grandfather, a big brother. They came and had donuts, coffee, and juice. And they did art projects with the kids. Tim [the Community Broker] talked a little bit about the Mentor program and I talked a little bit about Family Proficiency Night." The school psychologist, also talked about these highly attended parent programs; she sees more parental participation but would like to see even more. "It comes from being welcomed." Another way Cranwood welcomed parents was through the creation of a parent center in a portion of the Community Broker's room. The PTA President and her daughter were often seen working to prepare this room for parent interaction within the school.

(Adapted from Peck with Harry, Trebec and Veccia, 1999)

Getting into the Habit of Change in Ohio Schools

At Miami East North, collaborative teams of school personnel and parents use the Accelerated Schools inquiry process to guide the determination of needs and solutions for continuous improvement in the classrooms, corridors and other communities connected to the school. A vignette illustrating the work of the Parent Involvement Cadre unveils the complexity of determining the causes, much less the solutions, for low parent–teacher awareness and participation in Parent Teacher Organization activities (Box 18).

Box 18

Investigating Parental Involvement at Miami East North

"During the 1997-98 school year, I was a member of the Parent Involvement Cadre. The cadre was composed of five staff members and five parent members. We met weekly on Monday evenings. The first job of our cadre was to look at a list of challenges, which came from the Taking Stock Process and to choose a challenge area on which to focus. The challenges included parental and community involvement in PTO; parent understanding of indicators of success; parent involvement in homework; and the use of community resources. Involvement in PTO was chosen as the top priority. The group defined the problem as a lack of membership in PTO (parents and staff) and lack of communication between PTO and staff. The group hypothesized as to why this problem existed. After developing a list of hypotheses and discussing ways of testing the hypotheses for validity, we decided that a phone survey of parents would give a better understanding of why the participation in PTO meetings and related functions was lacking. A survey was drafted and the group began calling parents. The next step was to survey staff. The results of the surveys indicated areas of strengths and challenges. The challenges were identified as lack of knowledge about PTO, families too busy, parents unsure of expectations, parents working outside the home, lack of awareness of childcare availability, and parent involvement in children's extracurricular activities. After interpreting the results, we began brainstorming solutions."

(Poetter with Gay, Elifritz and Hofacker, 1999)

The Miami example highlights the emphasis in many TLC schools on deepening understanding of complex problems of school reform through systematic inquiry. It echoes the Cranwood orientation to defining parental involvement needs in partnership with parents. Other schools, such as Dawson-Bryant (see the section "Working with Community Partners," in this chapter), have also adopted a two-way approach to parental involvement which provides greater opportunity for parents to determine the nature of parent–school interaction.

Virtually all the TLC schools have created expanded opportunities for parental involvement in decision making about school reform and renewal. Typically, this has meant recruiting parent representatives to sit on school-improvement committees, or to participate in the development of grant proposals,

school mission statements and long-range plans, in addition to parental participation through traditional parent teacher associations, parent advisory councils, booster clubs, and the like. While formally increasing parent representation in school decision-making processes, these strategies are limited vehicles for broadening parental input into school decisions unless combined with other parent–school communication strategies. This is because parent representatives typically have no organized means of communicating with the broader parent audience they represent. In some schools, experimentation with parent membership on Venture Capital grant committees led teachers and principals to advocate more permanent decision-making roles for parents. Teachers at Federal Hocking modified the formal composition of their site-based steering committee to include additional parent representatives. Brentmoor teachers actively sought parents to chair school committees established to lead a renewal of their school-improvement efforts at the end of Venture Capital funding.

These examples of parental involvement in change provide a glimpse of the ways in which the TLC schools have worked with parents for school reform. Most of these efforts focus on boosting parental participation in fairly traditional ways, and as an adjunct to major reform initiatives in teaching and learning in the classroom. Hence, we associate these initiatives with the negotiation of other external linkages to acquire added resources and support for school reforms.

Working with Other Educators

We employ the phrase "other educators" loosely to encompass a diverse array of other external stakeholders and potential partners within the education system, such as state and federal education agencies, school district programs and staff, education foundations, postsecondary educational institutions, professional-development providers, other schools inside and outside the district, and professional associations. Again, it is not our intent to portray all the external linkages with educators present in the TLC schools, but rather to highlight some of the more innovative ways in which these kinds of linkages are being developed as a support for school reform.

The nature of teachers' professional learning has changed in the TLC schools. As described in Chapter Four, professional learning has become more embedded in the workplace, is more likely to involve teachers learning together and teaching one another in a variety of formats and contexts, and often involves the critical study of existing practices, in addition to learning about alternative practices. That said, linkages to external sources of professional-development support remain an important component of school reform in most of the schools. From a strategic standpoint, two features of externally supported professional development stand out across the TLC schools. One is the importance of long-term professional-development relationships with key sources of expertise relevant to the school's change agenda. The second is the importance of networking with other schools engaged in similar changes.

Several of the TLC schools are affiliated with national networks of schools committed to the implementation of particular school reform models, including Success for All (Dawson-Bryant), Accelerated Schools (Miami East North), the Coalition of Essential Schools (Federal Hocking, Reynoldsburg), and the Paideia network (Brentmoor, Federal Hocking). These networks share similar features. They advocate particular designs for schools. They are university-based and may have regional centers around the country. They provide access to inservice training and to on-site consultation for school personnel to support implementation of their school reform model. They disseminate information about the model, network support services, and the implementation experiences of member schools through newsletters. They may sponsor and disseminate research on the effects of the model on teaching practices and student development. They facilitate networking among member schools through visitations, electronic mail, and conferences. The costs of affiliation and participation are apparently within the reach of many schools.

Models associated with schoolwide reform networks can help guide both the shape and the course of the reform. The models typically include designs for what schools might be in the classrooms (e.g., principles of teaching and learning, advocacy of specific teaching and learning strategies, use of particular programs and materials), in the corridors (e.g., structures and processes for school decision making or for teacher learning), and in some cases in association with external partners (e.g., connections with parents or with community agencies). They may also include designs and support for putting those designs into practice. Schools affiliated with the Success for All model, for example, become involved in a change process that includes adoption of specific programs, a combination of off-site and on-site external (SFA consultants) and internal (school building facilitators) inservice assistance for teachers, resource materials, and partnering with a more experienced SFA school. Accelerated Schools learn to implement a cyclical process and procedures for identifying needs and planning for school improvement that is school-based, inquiry-oriented, and highly participatory.

Network affiliation carries with it the potential for sustained access to professional expertise in specific priorities for school change, and for increased connections with other schools engaged in similar types of changes. One of the critical professional-development assets arising from membership in these networks is access to knowledge from network consultants and other schools about the practicalities of actually putting the school-reform models into practice. In other words, the support comes not simply from a model of how to go about change, but also from first-hand accounts of how other schools implementing similar reforms have gone about the task, what adaptations they have made, what implementation challenges they have encountered, and how they have addressed those challenges. A second benefit is the sense of community, professionalism, and commitment that emerges as teachers and other stakeholders come to see that they are not alone in their visions for schools, and that they can both learn from and contribute to the knowledge base of schools implementing the network-focused models for school reform.

Network affiliation has its advantages, though the strategies of long-term external professional-development linkages and networking with schools involved in similar school reforms are certainly doable without formal affiliation with these kinds of organizations. After teachers at Cranwood visited the Key School in Indiana to see Gardner's Multiple Intelligences theory in action, and Montessori schools locally to explore strategies for multi-age teaching, the teachers associated themselves with consultants from the Institute for Education Renewal at John Carroll University, who could provide continuing professional support in these areas. The faculty at Federal Hocking used grant funds over two years to employ a staff-development consultant who was familiar with their reforms in teaching and learning. She worked on-site on a weekly basis with individual teachers and in small groups to support implementation. Prior to affiliation with the Coalition of Essential Schools, the staff used grant monies to visit and learn about block scheduling alternatives from other schools. Groups of teachers from East Muskingum participated in annual "Conversation Classes" at Muskingum College over five years, in which they studied middle school practices and issues assisted by college faculty with middle school expertise (Chapter Four, Box 12). At Lomond, external assistance with constructivist teaching in mathematics involved a continuing relationship with professors at Cleveland State, and ongoing on-site consultation with reform-minded mathematics teachers from the district high school.

Long-term associations with external sources of expertise in school-specific priorities for change contributes to persistence and deepening expertise in the implementation of those changes at the school level. External consultants also have more opportunity to tailor their expertise to particular school contexts when they are involved with the school over an extended period of time. Access to other schools implementing similar changes provides an additional and highly valued practical source of external professional expertise and moral support to teachers working in innovating schools.

Working with Community Partners

A smaller number of the TLC schools are involved in efforts to establish ongoing partnerships with external organizations to jointly plan and deliver education and related services to students and their families. Three cases, in particular, stand out, because their school–community partnership arrangements are unique and central to their overall school change stories. While similar programs and practices are certainly reported by some of the other schools, they were not as widely and fully developed and implemented as in these three cases.

The classroom areas of the Taft and Cranwood partnerships were highlighted in Chapter Three. The third, Dawson-Bryant, is unique among the TLC schools in its efforts to develop and deliver a comprehensive array of family support programs and services in collaboration with a consortium of community and social services organizations. In Box 19, we provide a brief overview of the major components

and organizational structure of each partnership as a context for discussion of strategic issues associated with these reforms.

Box 19

Community Partnership Linkages among the TLC Schools

Taft and T-CAP

Since the early 1990s Taft has benefited from an association with the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative (CYC), a collaborative venture of the school district, the local business sector, and the municipal government to promote school-reform efforts in city schools, particularly with regard to dropout prevention and the preparation of youth for the work force and college. CYC is a distinct entity, with a governing body co-chaired by the superintendent of schools, the chief executive officer of a major corporation, and a City Council member, plus a management team headed by a director from the business sector. Its members include business executives, university officials, and church and civic leaders. CYC initiatives are funded through external grants and corporate contributions.

Taft's association with CYC began in the late 1980s with the Taft Pilot Project, an initiative that was instrumental in bringing site-based management into the school, as well as some early experiments with teaming and support programs for at-risk students. This was the precursor to a school-wide employability skills and workplace training program called T-CAP (Taft Career Academic Program). T-CAP was designed by CYC staff with business sector representatives, and presented to the school staff for adoption in 1993, at a time when the school district was considering making Taft a magnet school for cosmetology. The teachers opted for T-CAP.

T-CAP has three components: school-based learning, work-based learning, and a mentoring/advising component handled by a team of Youth Advocates (YAs). The YAs are employed by CYC through federal grant monies. All students participate in T-CAP in Grades 9 and 10. Those who meet certain eligibility criteria (e.g., 8 credits completed by the end of the Sophomore year) continue with the program in Grades 11 and 12. The basic components of the program include (1) a Grade 9 career-exploration course that includes speaker panels and field trips to work sites; (2) a Grade 10 career-focus course that includes job-shadowing experiences, employability skills training, and a personal efficacy program; (3) a Grade 11 career-focus course that includes further employability skills training, orientation to postsecondary education programs, and computer-skills job training; and (4) 16-month paid internships with local employers beginning in Grade 11. Approximately 105 local employers offer a total of 275 internships. Interns are matched with work-site mentors on the job. Each YA is responsible for supervising, counseling, and coordinating about 30 T-CAP students at school and in the work sites. YAs interact with each students' work-site mentors and teaching teams within the schools.

Box 19 (continued)

CYC employs a T-CAP director, who was a former district assistant superintendent, and who is described as the "negotiator and grant writer" for the program. CYC also employs a retired businessman who is responsible for organizing and managing the work placement arrangements and for supervising the Youth Advocates. One teacher at the school has a part-time responsibility for coordination of the in-school curriculum components of T-CAP. Otherwise there is no formal structure for managing T-CAP at the school. The principal meets regularly with the CYC personnel to discuss program-related matters. Program decisions which do not directly impact on teachers, such as those related to the work-placements and the Youth Advocates, are made administratively with CYC without organized teacher input. Program decisions that impact on teachers must pass through the site-based management structure and be voted on by the faculty.

(Adapted from Knight Abowitz and Rousmaniere, 1999)

Cranwood and Community Learning Programs

In 1993 the Cleveland School District introduced a system-wide initiative called "Vision 21." Each school staff, with input from the community, was to choose and implement a school-development plan that best fit their vision of how children should be taught and assessed. Cranwood Elementary School developed its own plan drawing from various models suggested by the district, and thus was born the Cranwood Learning Project. The Project was supported in part by the school's Venture Capital grant, but also by the District. The Vision 21 plan (District funds) provided two additional and distinctive teaching staff positions: a Community Broker and a Lead Teacher. The Community Broker was given the responsibility of organizing and coordinating the school's vision of community- and service-learning classroom opportunities. As described in Chapter Three, these include an intergenerational program linking senior citizens from four senior centers with approximately 200 Grade 2/3 children; a Grade 3/4 Mentor Program that places about 60 students with business partners one day a week for six to eight weeks (nine businesses involved); and a Grade 3/4 Apprentice Program in which about 40 students spend a day a week with mentors at either of two local museums over a six-to-eight-week period. The principal provided the Community Broker with the freedom to go outside the building during the school day to negotiate the partnership arrangements with each community organization. The Community Broker works with teachers and staff from the community organizations to develop planned learning experiences in the community learning programs which are connected to the school curriculum, and which are evaluated in a variety of ways through journals, projects, presentations, and portfolios.

(Adapted from Peck with Harry, Trebec, and Veccia, 1999)

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Box 19 (continued)

Dawson-Bryant and Family Support Programs and Services

Dawson-Bryant is a rural kindergarten-through-fifth-grade elementary school located in the Appalachian region of southeastern Ohio. Family Support is one of the three major strands of the school's reform initiatives. The seeds of Family Support grew out of staff concerns about student performance, and the perception among school staff that children's ability to succeed academically is intertwined with other aspects of their development (e.g., physical, social, emotional), that schools are partners with parents supporting children's learning and development, and that parents may need additional support themselves in order to carry out their role. As early as 1992, the principal and school counselor were providing an "Active Parenting" program to parents interested in help with parenting skills. In conjunction with the Venture Capital application, the school adopted the Success for All (SFA) school reform model. In addition to its early intervention and classroom programs, the SFA model includes a Family Support component. The principal, school counselor, selected staff and representatives from 17 local community agencies took part in three days of Family Support Team training in 1994. Since that time, the school counselor and principal have coordinated regular Family Support Team meetings at the school with the agency partner representatives. These meetings are an occasion to coordinate support for identified students and families through relevant agencies (e.g., health, mental health, welfare, job training, justice), to share information about different programs and services, and to plan joint initiatives through the school. The school has opened its facilities to use after hours by many of the agencies as a site for delivery of services and programs. Direct involvement of the school in Family Support activities increased with the establishment of a part-time parent liaison position funded through Title monies. The parent liaison initiated home visits, began a breakfast program for children with chronic attendance problems, coordinated a gift program with local churches for needy families at Christmas, and organized a "Family Values" program for parents and their children with staff from a local mental health center. In 1996, the school obtained grants to begin a School Age Child Care Program for latchkey children after school. During the 1998/99 school year, the school counselor, principal, staff and parents became involved in a State Family Partnership Project.

(Adapted from Varella, Haas, Castle, Toadvine, Washburn, and Mays, 1999)

Each of these school–community partnerships has its own unique history, structural arrangements, and purpose, but there are some structural similarities across the cases. Each involves a redefinition of traditional conceptions of what schools do. These new conceptions require school personnel to collaborate with multiple partners outside the school to plan and deliver services formerly provided only

by the school (e.g., evaluated student learning experiences), or to involve the school in the delivery of services formerly provided only by outside agencies (e.g., access to social services, financial aid, legal aid). Each of the partnerhips is strongly endorsed by the district and school administrations. And each requires the creation of new staff positions, or the allocation of responsibility to existing positions, for managing and coordinating partner communications and activities.

At the heart of these school–community partnerships is a recognition on the part of school personnel that there are realms of student learning and development which schools simply cannot adequately serve on their own, and that it is imperative to develop ongoing collaborative arrangements with external partners to satisfy those needs. In the case of Dawson-Bryant, the school and its staff have entered into long-term relationships with multiple social services and community agencies in order to address a wide variety of concerns about different aspects of student and family welfare (health, shelter, nutrition, clothing, parenting skills, etc.), which exert profound conditioning effects on student academic and social development at school. At Taft, long-standing concerns about student motivation, failure, and dropping out were reframed in terms of the relevance of the conventional core academic curriculum to the vocational and career goals of the majority of students served by the school. The shift to providing a four-year schoolwide community-based employability-skills curriculum for all students, in addition to the traditional academic curriculum, necessitated the creation of a long-term partnership with the business community to support a mass school-to-work program experience. At Cranwood, teacher commitment to community involvement in the education of the whole child led to the variety of community-learning and -service programs outlined in Box 20 (see also Box 9, Chapter Three). Some of these school–community arrangements are grounded in beliefs about the need for schools to collaborate with external partners in order to enable students to be more successful in the regular school curriculum (Dawson-Bryant). Some are grounded in reconceptualizations or expanded visions of the goals of schooling (Taft). Some meld the two (Cranwood).

Collaborative school–community program and service linkages represent new ventures for the schools and their partners in the TLC schools. The establishment and further development of these linkages has been a major part of their school reforms. It is hardly surprising, then, that unexpected implementation issues have surfaced as the partnerships have evolved. One has to do with determining the zones of mutual decision making that essentially define the partnership. Since the partnerships are not all-encompassing, there is a need for agreement on the range, limits, and balance of each partner's influence on the other's operations. Teachers and their external partners at Cranwood and at Taft, for example, engage in ongoing deliberations and negotiations regarding the relationship between the in-school curriculum and the community-based or workplace curriculum, and they discuss whose responsibility it is, jointly or independently, to design, enact, and evaluate school-based and outside-the-school learning experiences of students. In Chapters Three and Four, we suggested that teachers working with external partners in co-teaching or advisory roles may need to redefine their work in these situations as "teaching educators," using their curricular and instructional expertise to guide their partners in the

planning and delivery of productive learning experiences for students (see Box 19). In order for that to happen on a wider scale, the enabling conditions identified in Chapter Four as integral to joint work among teachers would also have to be created to support teacher collaboration in ongoing external partnerships. This represents a significant new challenge for schools and for their partners.

A second implementation issue arising in these kinds of deeply embedded, ongoing school–community collaborations has to do with clarifying the relationship between coordinating and decision-making structures governing the partnership, and other management structures in each of the partner organizations. In effect, there needs to be a structure for managing the partnership. Schools that function as transforming learning communities place a high value on norms of consensus, communication, and participatory decision making (as described in Chapter Four) and, consequently, may find that it takes time to integrate these norms into joint management structures with other organizations that do not necessarily have or value the same management and decision-making traditions. Keeping all parties in the loop and feeling as though their views are heard and their input to decisions respected represents another major challenge for school–community partnerships.

Finally, we note that the role of classroom teachers in these kinds of partnerships can be distant or close, and that the degree of their involvement may reflect the nature of the partnership, as well as stages in its evolution. A typical arrangement appears to be to create new roles (e.g., Cranwood Community Broker, Taft T-CAP Coordinator, Dawson-Bryant Parent Liaison), or to add responsibilities to existing roles (e.g., Dawson-Bryant school counselor), specifically to implement the terms of the partnership. The classroom teacher role may be largely supportive, as when Dawson-Bryant teachers refer children to the Family Support Team. If the partnership involves teaching, the extent to which classroom teachers are implicated will depend partly on definitions of responsibilities for delivery of community-based and school-based curriculum, and partly on efforts to integrate the two. At Cranwood, for example, the Community Broker plays a pivotal role in facilitating integrated curriculum planning that bridges community-learning and school-learning experiences (Box 20). At Taft, periodic discussions and proposals for increasing integration between the core academic curriculum and the workplace components of T-CAP have figured into the school change story since the initiation of T-CAP.

Box 20

Teacher–Community Mentor Collaboration at Cranwood

Background: The Apprenticeship Program with the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum. Collaborative planning for Multi-age grades four-and-five class (see also Box 9, Chapter Three).

The Community Broker described the collaborative process and also the student outcomes as he observed them:

"Educators from the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Museum worked with me to construct a geography test for [teacher's name] students. They wanted to ask the students to find cities, states, and other particular information presented in the exhibits. They planned for students to work in small groups to gather this information from the exhibits. This was a concern for me. I was a bit leery of this, because I felt it might be sheer identification of facts — lower-level learning. I felt the students would not understand that there were connections to where the blues started, where jazz began, how rock fused with country and why. It took a long time to make my case to the good people at the Rock Hall, but we finally compromised. We got together with the students and gave them maps after they found the answers to the factual questions. Then we asked questions such as, 'Look at where the fathers and mothers of blues got started. Where was it? Why do you think blues started there?' The children began to relate personal information, like their family was from Georgia, Mississippi, the Delta. They began to tell us what the climate was like. They began to tell us their histories — how their great-grandfathers were in bands and still played the guitar on the rocker. They began to relate and construct meaning that connected climate and the start of the blues. They mentioned the types of plants that grew there, what the area looked like, how it contrasted with Cleveland. They mentioned slavery. This was truly higher-level learning. Keep in mind these were fourth and fifth graders."

(Peck with Harry, Trebec and Veccia, 1999)

Finally, we note that where schoolwide partnerships with multiple external organizations have been prominent strands of school reform, the schools tend to be situated in communities that are socioeconomically challenged in many ways (e.g., poverty, economic dislocation, racial segregation). In a very real sense, the school–community partnerships represent joint efforts to respond to broad and complex social issues and conditions which profoundly affect student learning and development. In so doing, they expand responsibility beyond the traditional academic purposes of schooling and necessarily begin to integrate efforts with other professionals. Nearly a decade ago, a group of businessmen associated with the Cincinnati Youth Collaborative (CYC) sat down with teachers from Taft High School and proclaimed that they would have the dropout problem solved with a year. This led to the Taft Pilot Project, and subsequently to T-CAP and schoolwide teaming of grades nine to 12. Notwithstanding the successes of

T-CAP and teaming (the graduation rate doubled from about 45 to 90 students), CYC representatives and teachers convened one Saturday in the Fall of 1998 to once again consider pervasive issues of over-aged students, academic failure, and dropouts and to propose additional innovations in the schools T-CAP and academic programs. The Taft experience (the oldest school–community partnership among the TLC schools) demonstrates that school–community partnerships can make a valuable contribution to improvements in student learning. At the same time, the Taft experience reveals that partnerships are complicated innovations, and that long-term relationships are necessary in order for schools and their collaborators to truly assess the impact of partnership arrangements on student learning and development, and how those joint initiatives might themselves be improved (i.e., become a focus for further change).

All of the schools involved in the TLC project are proactive in negotiating and sustaining external linkages to support their school-reform efforts. Some of these efforts are directed largely towards enhancing existing relationships, particularly those that exist with parents (e.g., parent communication, volunteers, participation in decision making). Others bring schools into different and longer-term professional-learning relationships with other educators from outside the school, through school-reform networks, school–university connections, and the like. While these supportive linkages with external sources are an important enabling factor in the ongoing reform and improvement efforts of these schools, they do not fundamentally alter the nature of the learning community and work of teachers within the school. A few schools have embarked on long-term schoolwide school–community partnerships focused on student learning, welfare, or both, which potentially affect all students and directly or indirectly involve all teachers. These initiatives are bold and appear to require a substantial period of time to sort out complicated inter-organizational arrangements, decision-making boundaries, roles, conditions enabling collaboration, and intended results for the ultimate beneficiaries: students. They expand responsibility and participation in these schools and in the ongoing transformation of these schools on behalf of student learning in the classroom.

Chapter Six

Transforming Learning Communities: Getting into the Habit of Change

This project began as a study of 12 schools — varying in grade levels, location, size, and socioeconomic conditions — that had a reputation for having brought about significant changes in the ways that teachers individually and collectively support student learning in and out of the classroom. Our aim was to discover how these schools were changing and what conditions and processes were contributing to that change. We adopted a moniker for the project and the schools — transforming learning communities — which was intended to convey the dual sense of change as an embedded feature of life in these schools ("transform" as an adjective), and of change as a set of deliberate actions intended to enable and facilitate school reform ("transform" as a verb). In the final chapter, we return to the two questions implied in this dual meaning: (1) What are transforming learning communities like?, and (2) How do they become (and continue to be) transforming learning communities? Our response to these questions provides strategic guidance for school personnel and other stakeholders who may want to develop habits of change characteristic of transforming learning communities.

Transforming Learning Communities: A Portrait

In Chapter One, we proposed that the fundamental school reform question is, "What do we want our schools to become?" Our answer is that we want schools to become transforming learning communities. We can now portray in greater detail what becoming transforming learning communities actually means in practice. Transforming learning communities have two unifying themes: a pervasive emphasis on learning in and on behalf of the classroom, and a deep and abiding regard for connectedness across the three contexts of change — in the classroom, in the corridors, and with other communities. These

themes permeate the various dimensions of community present in every context — socially (sharing common work), ecologically (sharing common space and time), philosophically (sharing common values and beliefs), politically (sharing common processes of governance), historically (sharing common experiences with change over time), and strategically (sharing common approaches to change). In this section, we construct a holistic portrait of what transforming learning communities are like in terms of the various dimensions of community listed above, using the TLC schools as the basis for the claims and illustrations presented. This will lead into the final section of the chapter and book, where we synthesize and comment on strategic actions that shape how schools become and persist as transforming learning communities.

Dimensions of Community in Transforming Learning Communities

Socially, more people are working together in these schools on matters directly concerned with student learning, the continuing development of teachers, and the improvement of the school. The emphasis on learning and on mutually supported learning in these schools characterizes the interactions of teachers and students and teachers with others in all three contexts. In some schools, this leads to increasing commonality in what happens in the classrooms and in the corridors. Teachers across the school, for example, may implement similar teaching strategies — e.g., cooperative learning, Paideia seminars, or portfolio assessment. Alternatively, they may commit to common principles of pedagogy, while encouraging experimentation with alternative classroom practices associated with those principles — e.g., multiple intelligences, inquiry-oriented teaching, project learning and student exhibitions, teacher-as-coach and student-as-worker, and teacher as instructional designer. In the corridors, teachers may team or engage in joint learning activities (e.g., study groups, Critical Friends, and peer coaching), thereby participating in the mutual development of practice. As part of other communities, teachers working with external agency personnel might jointly plan, deliver, evaluate, and refine student learning experiences in the community, or collectively investigate student failure and attendance problems and monitor results of joint actions. Embedding learning in the social network of schools contributes to the growing understanding of how members of transforming learning communities behave.

Ecologically, the range of common spaces and times in which people are working together has grown and continues to grow in each of the three contexts of change — in the classroom (sites where students are learning with guidance from teachers), in the corridors (places primarily within the school where teachers plan, facilitate, and make decisions about the work of classrooms and schools), and with other communities (sites where students and school personnel interact with outside groups and organizations). Teachers relocate their classrooms to be nearer to colleagues with whom they regularly or occasionally team teach. Daily and weekly schedules are reorganized to provide common times for teaching teams, school-improvement committees, and professional-learning groups to meet together. Student learning is extended beyond the perimeter of the school into other settings within the com-

munity (e.g., businesses, community organizations, other schools), thereby incorporating a greater variety of settings and people in the teaching and learning process. Classrooms, corridors, and settings where teachers interact with external stakeholders and partners do not exist as separate ecological niches in these schools. They are richly connected in dense webs of communication, interaction, and joint action over time.

Learning that occurs in one context is often connected to and supported by events that transpire in others. Teachers adopting an inquiry approach to exploring needs for school improvement may carry over that approach into inquiry-oriented lessons with students. Teachers learning to implement student-led discussions may find that the same methods can be applied with colleagues in staff discussions on important issues. Teachers enacting principles of democracy (e.g., choice, responsibility) in school decision making may begin to extend those principles to student participation in decisions about their school work and the organization of their school day. In these illustrations, the content, behavior, or principle first learned in one context becomes translated to another context. With every change in the connectedness of space, time, or practice, the ecosystem of transforming learning communities is strengthened.

Philosophically, these schools are characterized by ongoing professional dialogue between teachers and with other stakeholders about core ideas underlying the goals of education, student needs, effective practices, and how schools might be best organized to support teaching and learning. A formulation of a school mission statement, a joint declaration to commit to a particular schoolwide reform model, or a decision to submit a proposal are moments of philosophical agreement. The more enduring signs of the philosophical dimension of community are in the ongoing interaction around ideas that frame these agreements and the values attached to them — what is right to do, what has priority, what is feasible. While there may not be schoolwide consensus on all ideas — and (many argue that it would be unhealthy if there were) — there is agreement on the need for ongoing dialogue about core ideas and their relation to existing and possible practices and structures.

Politically, teachers and other participants in the 12 schools associated with this project exercise greater collective authority and control over decisions affecting student learning and school change. The shift is twofold, involving teachers making decisions together about issues they previously decided alone (e.g., instructional choices in the classroom) or that were formerly handled by the school administration and other external authorities. This occurs through site-based governance structures, school-improvement committees, decentralized teaching teams, and other collaborative structures and processes empowered with decision-making authority. Community is strengthened through wider access to participation in these decision-making opportunities and through the sense of ownership and commitment that emerges from decisions forged through processes that maximize involvement, not just votes. The political community, however, is not defined simply through participation in formal governance, but also through participation in the micropolitical world of daily interaction, as teachers and those with whom

they work attempt to protect their individual and collective interests. It is within the political community that the enduring tensions over individual professional rights, collective authority and autonomy, and bottom-line expectations provide substance for sharing, discussion, and debate in both formal and informal contexts.

Transforming learning communities create collective histories of change in the classrooms, in the corridors, and with other communities. The historical dimension of community in these schools is characterized in part by shared memories of coming together in recognition of common needs, of joint efforts to address those needs, and of the changes that resulted in the classroom, in the corridors, and beyond. The history of change is a continuous story, one in which different moments of change are perceived, experienced, and told as connected to one another in a coherent tale. The history is a developmental story, arising not just from collective experiences with change, but from collective learning through change and the actions taken as a result of that learning (e.g., continuing refinements in practices, abandonment of practices, experimentation with new practicies). It is also a history not only of programs, structures, and practices introduced into the classrooms and corridors, but also of the specific strategies used to facilitate implementation of those changes.

Strategically, the schools which we have come to know as transforming learning communities are places in which teachers, principals, and their collaborators practice habits of change that promote, support, and sustain continuous inquiry on behalf of student learning. These habits of change which are characteristic of educators in transforming learning communities have been explored throughout this book. They include the concern for connectedness across contexts. They include the disposition to approach work less as a repetitive execution of tasks than as a continuous process of learning enhanced by working in partnership with others (collaboration); by uniting traditionally separate activities and people and settings (integration); and by constantly investigating the content, context, and enduring tensions of reform (inquiry). They include sustained engagement in strategic actions which challenge the nature of teaching and learning in the classroom, the organizational conditions that support classroom change, the professional working and learning relationships among teachers, the linkages with sources outside the school in support of both student and school development, and the locus of responsibility and control over the processes of school reform. It is our contention that through the enactment of these strategic actions over time, schools increasingly acquire the characteristics of transforming learning communities.

The sense of community in the 12 TLC schools is a multidimensional phenomenon, nurtured through interconnected work in common spaces and times, engagement in sustained dialogue about core ideas and beliefs, collaboration in practice, collective control over significant decisions affecting the work of students and teachers, and participation in shared change-focused endeavors over time. In the final section of this chapter and book, we focus our attention once more on the key strategic actions that characterize the transforming dimension of learning communities in schools, and on how they serve as positive forces for change.

Transforming Learning Communities: Building Habits of Change

Transforming learning communities conveys our now-familiar dual sense of schools in a continuous state of evolution ("transforming" as an adjective), and of deliberate efforts to alter the structures and processes that define and/or support learning in schools ("transforming" as a verb). In Chapter One, we suggested that change is a constant factor in the work lives of teachers, and that much of this change occurs as part of the natural cycles of teachers' work (e.g., adapting to new students each year, changing teaching assignments, responding to new curriculum policies, coping with budget restrictions, adapting to building renovations) and as a response to unanticipated events (e.g., sudden departure of key administrators, unexpected drops in proficiency test results, election of a slate of trustees with a new set of priorities). Still others are the result of deliberate efforts to introduce planned changes in the classroom, or in the corridors and beyond — interventions we have called "strategic actions." It is our contention that these strategic actions can, over time, acquire the status of habitual ways of approaching change in schools.

The strategic actions through which a school becomes a learning community engaged in a positive state of ongoing transformation (i.e., the TLC schools) are actions which then become embedded features in the work lives of teachers, students, administrators and others contributing to the work of learning in those schools. In effect, in describing what these schools are like as transforming learning communities, one is simultaneously describing what strategic actions other schools might take to emulate them. While what these schools have accomplished is remarkable, the strategic actions through which they accomplished change, in our view, are attainable for all schools.

We begin this final section with a review of strategic actions which have contributed to the evolution of these schools as transforming learning communities, and which continue to characterize their ongoing efforts to improve the quality of teaching and learning for students and teachers. We conclude the chapter with a commentary on the qualities that make these strategic actions forceful habits of change.

Transforming Learning Communities: Strategic Actions

In Chapter One, we introduced the concept of strategic actions as frameworks change, as listed below (for a graphic representation, refer to Table 2, Chapter One):

- Redefining the work of students
- Reorienting the practice of teaching
- Creating conditions that enable and stimulate innovation
- Building capacity for joint work
- Developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences
- Working and learning outside the school
- Negotiating and sustaining external linkages
- Extending collegial development
- Expanding shared responsibility

These strategic actions are manifested through a wide range of more concrete actions that constitute the strategies undertaken in particular schools in the process of change.

"Redefining the work of students" and "reorienting the practice of teaching" represent two classroom-based approaches to change, the first giving primacy to change in the nature of students' work in schools, and the second focusing change on the instructional roles and practices of teachers. Though these strategic actions are not prescriptive of the kinds of changes that might be undertaken, there is a striking similarity in the kinds of classroom-based changes pursued. It is common to find one or more of the following innovations at various stages of development: cooperative group learning; inductive and inquiry-oriented teaching and learning activities; experimentation with multiple intelligences as an organizer for teaching and learning strategies; increased emphasis on complex problem solving (over knowledge acquisition); use of constructivist theory to design and assess student learning experiences; emphasis on performance tasks in which students are challenged to demonstrate their knowledge in authentic ways; and alternative assessment practices in which the students play a greater role in their own evaluation (e.g., portfolios, self evaluation, student-led conferences). Across the TLC schools, teachers are reinventing the core metaphor of instruction. This new metaphor emphasizes teacher expertise and flexibility in the use of multiple teaching strategies, and it positions teachers in more coachlike relations with students in the learning process.

Such changes are not noteworthy by themselves; many schools have pursued similar reforms. What does stand out are the intensity and prominence of the classroom change agenda, the connecting character of the pedagogical innovations teachers create, and the cohesive force classroom changes have on changes in the corridors and with other communities. The processes and outcomes of teaching and

learning in the classrooms are the focus of discussion and action. Consistent with the ethos of learning communities described above, classroom practices stress collaborative, inquiry-oriented, integrated work. Change in the classroom has been part of the agenda from the start: sometimes this agenda emphasizes student learning behaviors, sometimes teaching practices, and often both, and it then connects those efforts to changes in other aspects of the teaching and learning environment of the school and beyond.

"Creating conditions that enable and stimulate innovation" and "building capacity for joint work" are interrelated strategic actions. "If only . . ." is a common lament in schools where frustrated teachers point to organizational barriers that hinder the implementation of innovative practices, or that keep teachers from having the time to learn, to plan, to collaborate with one another and with others on matters of school reform. "Why not . . ." appears to be the common response in the 12 TLC schools. Within the parameters of state and district policies, union contracts, school facilities and the like, teachers and principals in the TLC schools have found multiple ways to rearrange and renegotiate many of the organizational conditions that teachers in other schools continue to regard as obstacles to change.

As pointed out in Chapter Three, some classroom innovations essentially require structural changes. Longer class periods make it easier for certain kinds of teaching and learning activities to occur, such as project work and exhibitions, cooperative group activities, and other more student-centered kinds of pedagogy. Other structural changes are introduced in a more open-ended way in order to increase the potential for innovation. Double blocking of associated subject areas and organizing teachers and students into teaming arrangements, for example, create a potential for flexible timing and grouping and curriculum integration within the blocked subjects and teacher–student cohorts.

Teacher collaboration is widely regarded as a key strategy to stimulate and support innovation in schools. The same barriers to innovation in the classroom are often cited as barriers to greater joint work among teachers and with other stakeholders. Structural changes that support classroom innovation, then, may simultaneously enhance the capacity for joint work among teachers. The establishment of teaching teams, team planning time, double blocking of related subjects, and relocation of team member classrooms in the same corridors of the school, for example, builds organizational capacity for teacher collaboration while increasing the potential for innovation in the classroom.

Developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences is a strategic action which is typically classroom-based in its delivery but originates in the corridors. For students, learning becomes more integrated and less compartmentalized into discrete subjects, particularly when the results of their cross-disciplinary learning experiences are pulled together in unified products such as, portfolios, exhibitions, and group presentations. For teachers, involvement in cross-disciplinary work leads to rethinking matters of curriculum relevance and connectedness, student learning activities, student outcomes, and the structure of student learning time. While possible within the individual classroom, cross-disciplinary work often challenges teachers to engage in joint planning and delivery of learning experiences within teach-

ing teams, or more broadly when teachers collectively commit to the development of thematic units across teams and even schoolwide. Teachers in some schools extend cross-disciplinary learning into the community, focusing upon knowledge bases that go beyond the formal curriculum, or drawing upon external settings for cross-disciplinary inquiry. In so doing, they extend the boundaries of the school learning community and begin to involve others as co-teachers in the delivery — and even in the planning — of student learning experiences.

In many of the TLC schools, student learning is being transformed through the strategic action we called "working and learning outside the school." Where most intensely pursued, this involves students from elementary to high schools, in sustained interaction with settings, resources, and people in learning milieus outside the regular classroom (e.g., other schools, museums, local community organizations and agencies, local businesses). This adds a sense of real-world relevance to student learning, while simultaneously engaging teachers in new relationships with other communities to support that learning. Sometimes the curriculum focus is defined by the nature of the outside experience, such as community service and school-to-work programs and internships. In other instances, teachers in collaboration with their external partners seek ways to integrate the in-school curriculum with external learning experiences in ways that extend the normal parameters of student learning. When teachers interact with external collaborators, they begin to assume new professional roles as teaching educators guiding the planning and delivery of these learning experiences.

"Negotiating and sustaining external linkages" is a strategic action through which school personnel develop formal and informal partnerships with sources outside the school, including parents, other education providers, and community groups (business, community organizations). As described above, these linkages often involve external sources as collaborators in the planning and delivery of student learning experiences inside and outside the school. Teachers and principals in a few TLC schools (notably those serving socioeconomically disadvantaged communities) have broadened the school reform agenda from student learning to student welfare. Their strategies for change include collaborative arrangements with social and community agencies to assist with a wide variety of needs for child and family support affecting student participation in school (e.g., nutrition, clothing, health, shelter, security). Characteristically, the creation of long-term external partnerships requires the creation of roles and management structures to coordinate implementation and ongoing development of partnership arrangements.

Efforts to expand and enhance traditional forms of parental involvement are a common dimension of school reform and renewal in these schools. Examples include new strategies for home–school communication (e.g., student-led parent–teacher conferences, use of new technologies), parent education (e.g., inservice training for parents in the use of instructional innovations being applied in the classroom), parent volunteer work (e.g., involving parents as evaluators of student project exhibitions), and parent support for learning at home (e.g., creating home learning activities that involve parents in new modes of teaching and learning in the classroom). These schools deliberately expand parent representation in

school decision-making structures and processes, including the development of proposals for change. Some develop coalitions with parent groups to gain local political support for jointly determined reforms in the classrooms and corridors.

Teachers in the TLC schools are learning to make their schools better, and they make strategic use of external resources to support that learning. They invest time and expertise in seeking and leveraging additional funds (grants, awards, donations) and resources to further their goals for change in the classroom, corridors, and community linkages. They make use of local staff-development providers (e.g., universities, regional professional-development centers), and actively shape those services to fit school-based priorities for learning. Many of these schools have affiliated themselves formally or informally with schools implementing similar changes through nationwide school reform networks and interest groups. From a strategic perspective, association with networks (e.g., Coalition of Essential Schools, Accelerated Schools, Success for All, Paideia) has benefited schools in terms of affiliation with a broader community of like-minded schools, access to professional support tied to their agendas for school change (inservice training and consultants, teaching and learning resources, network conferences, visitation with other network schools, e-mail support), plus guidance in shaping their visions for reform. The appeal of these school networks is found partly in the fact that the models they support typically encompass approaches to teaching and learning in the classroom, as well as approaches to teacher learning and participation in the corridors.

"Extending collegial development" is a strategic action which centers directly on change in teachers' professional learning in transforming learning communities. Teachers in transforming learning communities situate much of their professional learning in the school, and connect it to shared priorities for change. In so doing, their learning becomes more integrated across the school, and more collectively focused on concurrent efforts to introduce or to further develop expertise with pedagogical innovations in the classroom. The *sine qua non* of this strategic action is its emphasis on teachers learning together. The hallmark of joint learning in these learning communities, however, is not simply the act of learning together, but rather the art of teachers cultivating one another's expertise to further their own and the schools' development. Peer teaching is a norm played out in various forms over time, such as group investigations and presentations, demonstrations, peer coaching, and teacher study groups, as well as in the informal interactions of teaching teams as they jointly create units, discuss at-risk students, and share experiences with different teaching methods. The most profound shift in teachers' professional learning occurs when teachers begin to jointly study the enactment and consequences of their own practices, in addition to that professional learning which is oriented to acquiring and applying external knowledge. This kind of professional learning is simultaneously embedded in the workplace, inter-contextual (linking teacher learning in the corridors to matters of substance in the classroom), collaborative, and inquiry-oriented. It situates teacher learning in both the act of teaching and in teaching relationships with others.

Teachers in transforming learning communities demonstrate a high degree of interdependence on other teachers in the performance of their work. This interdependence comes about progressively over time through the strategic action we have called "expanding shared responsibility." Shared responsibility for student development is commonly instilled through such practices as team teaching, cross disciplinary work, and joint action to address the needs of students academically or socially at risk. Shared responsibility for school development is enhanced though the development of consensus around core goals, student needs and expectations for performance. It is directly associated with decentralization of decision-making authority and leadership to teaching teams, school-improvement committees, and other collaborative work groups. Goal consensus and interdependence is supported by highly participatory communication networks in these schools. Teachers and other partners have ongoing opportunities in a variety of small- and large-group contexts to exchange information and discuss important ideas and issues relevant to student learning, and school reform. As transforming learning communities evolve, joint responsibility expands to a widening array of people, contexts, and decision-making purposes implicated in various aspects of student development and school improvement. High interdependence creates high within-school expectations and accountability for responsible participation in the learning community.

Considered as an ensemble, these nine strategic actions capture the multiple ways in which the change-oriented schools involved in this project are transforming the nature of learning and community in Ohio schools: by redefining the work of teachers and students in the classroom, by creating organizational conditions that support innovation and collaborative endeavors, by breaking out of traditional boundaries of learning through cross-disciplinary and community-based learning experiences, by involving others in sustained relationships as partners in the development of students and teachers, by engaging teachers in more collective and school-based forms of professional learning, and by expanding the scope of shared responsibility for student learning and school reform. While we recognize that these strategic actions were not all taken up with equal intensity in all the TLC schools, or even within the same school over time, we believe that they do reflect prominent strands of strategic development which are likely to emerge in schools that actively seek to develop as transforming learning communities.

Strategic Actions as Forceful Habits of Change

In the preceding section, we directed attention to the sense in which the 12 schools involved in this project are being transformed through deliberate interventions associated with the nine strategic actions identified through our cross-case investigation. We conclude with some closing reflections on how these actions serve as forceful habits of change, focusing on (1) their relation to specific interventions; (2) their catalytic effects over time; (3) their simultaneous function as both strategies for change and foci of learning; and (4) their relational focus and binding effects across different contexts of the learning community.

At the risk of dwelling on what may seem self-evident, it is nonetheless worth pausing to reflect on the relation between the concept of strategic actions and the actual change interventions invoked in specific schools at particular points in time. What we have called "strategic actions" specify directions for action which are oriented towards particular dimensions of organizational activity and structure in schools. They do not specify the actual strategies that might be taken in behavioral terms, and this is intentional. Across the TLC schools, and within individual schools, specific interventions associated with each of these strategic actions are quite varied. In Chapter Four, for example, we described seven different forms of peer teaching observed, as illustrations of ways in which teachers in these schools are extending collegial development. Over a period of time, a variety of forms of peer teaching might be enacted among teachers in a school, and even multiple forms at the same time, as in many of the TLC schools. The strategic action extending collegial development provides direction for thinking and acting upon teacher learning in the school. How it plays out will be determined by the practical possibilities and professional preferences in individual schools.

As forceful habits of change, the strategic actions serve as catalysts in the development of transforming learning communities. For example, encouraging more coach-like behaviors in teachers (reorienting the practice of teaching) initially may alter some teachers' more directive pedagogical stance. This stance may in turn lead to approaches where students devote more time to independent projects and teachers concentrate their efforts on facilitating the development of these projects. What began as an intervention focused on teaching eventually resulted in changes in the learning experiences of students. The strategic action, then, represents an ongoing guide to change, and not just a jumpstart at the outset or a powerful one-time injection for teachers to carry forward on their own. Its catalytic force lingers over time.

A similar distinction occurs when building a consensus on goals in expanding shared responsibility. This may first take place at a staff retreat or during an end-of-year review of school objectives. It is sustained during the school year through such practices as bi-weekly meetings of teaching teams or shared planning groups with a principal to discuss the core elements of the school mission statement and what progress is being made in their enactment in the classrooms, in the corridors, and with other communities. Therefore, in order for the strategic actions to serve as catalysts in the development of schools as learning communities, interventions must be continual within the domains of activity targeted by those actions.

In addition to their capacity to promote and sustain change, strategic actions are sources of both professional and organizational learning. For example, working and learning outside the school is less likely to be approached as a set of discrete programmatic actions to be put in place, than as a focus for experimentation, reflection, and progressive development in the nature and quality of student learning experiences outside the school. Developing cross-disciplinary learning experiences is a matter not only of creating and implementing thematic units, but also of studying alternative models of curriculum inte-

gration, trying out different approaches, and observing student results, thereby gaining increasingly deeper expertise in the pedagogy of cross-disciplinary teaching and learning. Introducing teachers teams (as part of building capacity for joint work and expanding shared responsibility) serves both as a catalyst for change in the classroom (through teaching methods, discipline, cross-disciplinary work, etc.), and as a focus for change in their own right. Teachers working on teaching teams are likely to begin questioning and tinkering with the teaming arrangments as they acquire the skills of working collaboratively, search for the best mix of personnel and scheduling arrangements, figure out how to cope with turnover and other unexpected implementation problems in teaming, and so on. The strategic actions are, thus, both a stimulus and a guide for continuous learning and improvement.

Finally, strategic actions have a binding impact across the different contexts of transforming learning communities. For example, while "expanding shared responsibility" primarily affects the political character of schools, strategies associated with that strategic action frequently engage teachers and others in regular and prolonged dialogue (reorganized time, an ecological dimension) in different forums (social dimension) where basic values and beliefs are reconsidered (philosophical dimension) in relation to both past and future practices (historical dimension). Actions inevitably become multidimensional in their scope, implications, and often in context. Changes in one context are deliberately considered in light of their implications for change in other contexts, and student learning remains a paramount consideration throughout. Links across contexts are less a result of any one strategic action than a consequence of the effects of interventions associated with several strategic actions.

The strategic actions position teachers at the heart of change in transforming learning communities. Each of the strategic actions involves teachers in altered relationships with others — teachers with students, teachers with colleagues, teachers with parents and other external partners. It follows, then, that transforming learning communities is fundamentally concerned with restructuring the work of teachers, and that it is imperative to recognize and attend to teachers as learners in these new relationships, as well as to attend to the implications for change in the work of those with whom they interact. The centrality of teachers, however, is not because they are subjects of change in transforming learning communities. They are prime strategists and binding agents of change in the enactment and ongoing evolution of learning and teaching through application of the strategic actions. In this book, we have stressed the value of inclusion, a community view of change. This is not to undervalue the contributions of key individuals (principals, teacher-leaders) to school reform, but rather to emphatically recognize that in transforming learning communities, sustained development draws strength from individual contributions to the whole, without becoming overly dependent on the contributions of particular individuals.

Getting into the habit of change requires strategic actions (forceful habits) which create and sustain what we want our schools to become. We want schools that are deeply committed to improving what happens in and on behalf of classrooms within an environment where connections among people, ideas

and practices matter. Such schools understand that establishing a community devoted to learning requires learning how to be a community. As the 12 schools in this project demonstrate, transforming learning communities are about perpetuating this habit.

TRANSFORMING LEARNING COMMUNITIES SITES

Cross-Case Study

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

1 **Brentmoor Elementary School**
Mentor Exempted Village Schools
Cleveland State University

2 **Cranwood Learning Academy**
Cleveland City Schools
Cleveland State University

3 **Dawson-Bryant Elementary School**
Dawson-Bryant Local Schools
(Lawrence County)
Ohio University

4 **Lomond Elementary School**
Shaker Heights City Schools
Cleveland State University

5 **Miami East North Elementary School**
Miami East Local Schools
(Miami County)
Miami University

MIDDLE SCHOOLS

6 **East Muskingum Middle School**
East Muskingum Local Schools
(Muskingum County)
Muskingum College
Ohio University

7 **Galion Middle School**
Galion City Schools
The Ohio State University

8 **Talawanda Middle School**
Talawanda City Schools
Miami University

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

9 **Federal Hocking High School**
Federal Hocking Local Schools
(Athens County)
Ohio University

10 **Franklin Heights High School**
South-Western City Schools
The Ohio State University

11 **Reynoldsburg High School**
Reynoldsburg City Schools
The Ohio State University

12 **Robert A. Taft High School**
Cincinnati City Schools
Miami University

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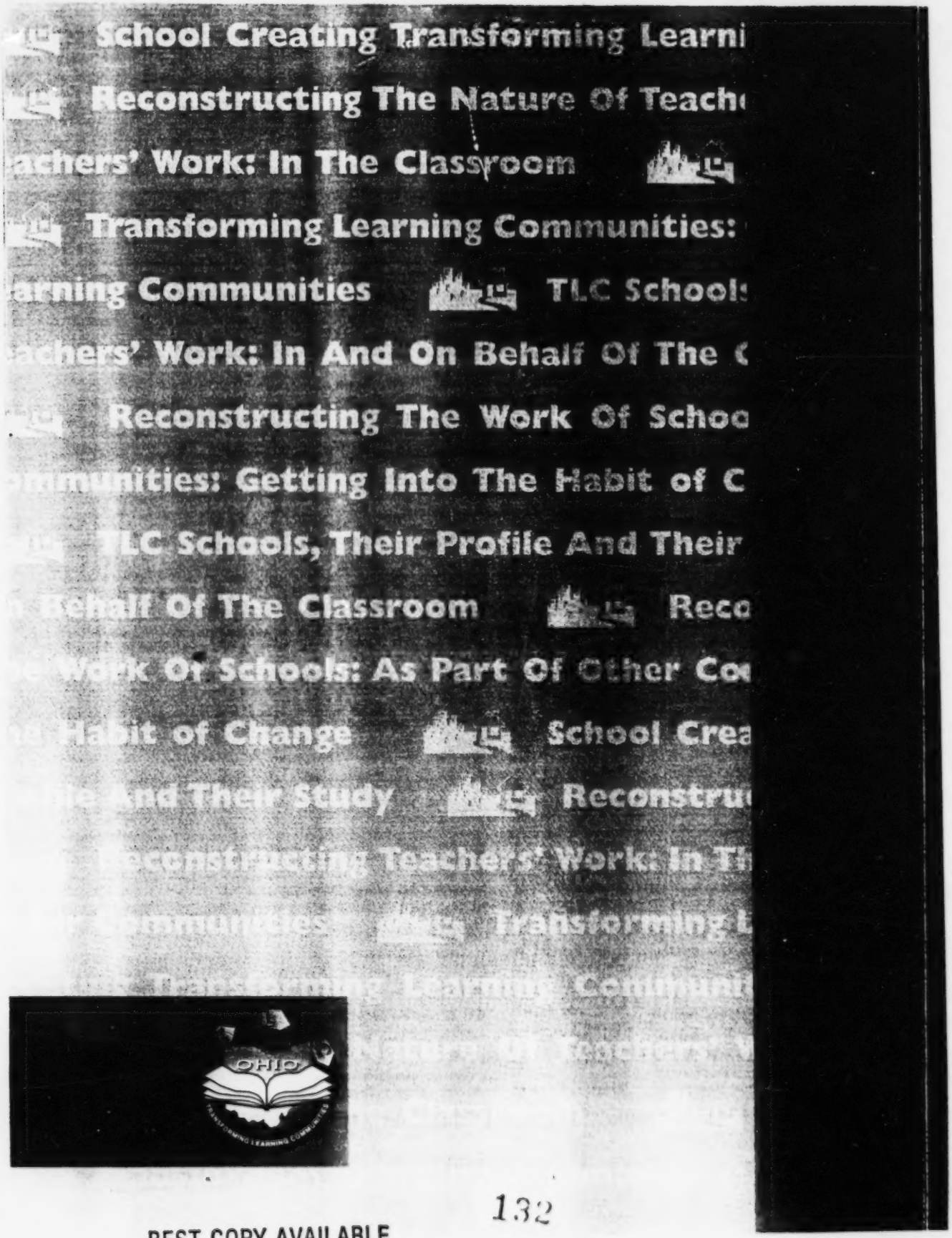

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